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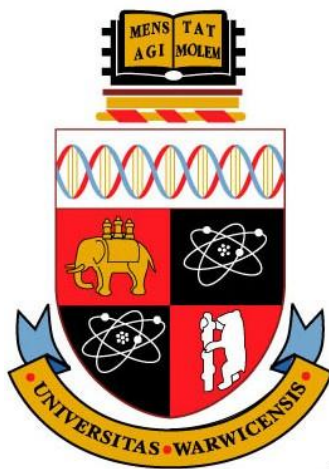
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How and why Mandarin Chinese is introduced into secondary schools in England



By

Lida Xie (谢立达)

**A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

University of Warwick, Institute of Education

March 2013

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Declaration

I hereby declare that all the materials contained in this thesis are the sole work of the author unless specially referenced. This work has not been published before. I confirm that this work has not been submitted for any other awards.

Lida Xie

Abstract

This mixed design research doctorate seeks to explore the rationale for a selected sample of English schools that are introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language, specifically, investigating the teaching goals and teaching methods that were applied. It also focuses on pupils' views based on their personal learning experiences. This research starts with an overview of the research into the teaching and learning of Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language, globally, which was then narrowed down to the context of introducing Mandarin Chinese into the educational curriculum in England within the context of the relevant teaching approaches.

The methodological approach of the research combined quantitative and qualitative methods. Interviews were conducted with two Head Teachers and five Heads of foreign language departments in order to investigate the rationale for a sample of schools deciding to introduce Mandarin Chinese and the current situation of teaching. Interviews with five Teachers of Mandarin Chinese were carried out to gather data in order to investigate teachers' experiences in teaching Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language abroad. Additionally, data was collected through classroom observations, in total 59 lessons were observed to gather in-depth data to investigate teaching methods and teachers' interaction with pupils during day-to-day practice. Data was also collected through a questionnaire survey sent to 84 pupils who participated in Mandarin Chinese language classes from a sample of five schools, which represented pupils' views about the teaching and learning of Mandarin Chinese.

Qualitative and quantitative data analyses revealed a range of factors that may contribute to the promotion of Mandarin Chinese in schools in England, for example, the impact on the global context; the schools' needs and pupils' professional development requirements. There are two teaching goals identified in this research: GCSE Chinese examinations and Asset Languages test. Teachers employed different teaching methods to meet various requirements for different teaching aims. The findings revealed several problems and challenges existing in current teaching and learning, such as school funding; teachers' professional training; a shortage of suitable instructional materials; administrative infrastructures; and progression and continuity amongst others. Pupils' feedback regarding their learning experiences showed that pupils had a positive attitude towards learning Mandarin Chinese; however, their motivation was affected by their teachers' teaching methods and attitudes towards teaching Mandarin Chinese.

This is not a not a comparative study, however, through different data gathered from GCSE and non-GCSE classes, the author commented on the differences in teachers and pupils' experiences and opinions about teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese, as well as exploring their perceptions and reactions by investigating their experience of participating in and reflecting on this research.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements.....	i
Declaration.....	ii
Abstract.....	iii
List of Tables.....	viii
List of Graphs.....	ix
List of Pictures.....	x
List of Appendixes.....	xi
 Chapter 1 Introduction	 1
1.1 Personal engagement with the research	2
1.2 Rationale for the study	7
1.3 Research Questions	8
1.4 A brief outline of the research design	9
1.5 The significance of this study	11
1.6 Outline and structure of the thesis.....	13
Chapter 2: Literature Review	16
Introduction.....	16
2.1 Research on teaching and learning Mandarin globally	18
2.1.1 America.....	18
2.1.2 Canada.....	21
2.1.3 Hong Kong.....	23
2.1.4 Singapore	25
2.2 The context for introducing Mandarin in England.....	26
2.2.1 Background	27
2.2.2 Content -- Putonghua 普通话, pinyin 拼音 and characters 汉字.....	32
2.3 Mandarin Chinese provision in England	34
2.3.1 The current situation relating to language teaching in England	34
2.3.2 The reasons for introducing Mandarin to England	36
2.3.3 Research on teaching Mandarin in England	47
2.5 Literature review of motivation in MFL teaching and learning	57
2.6 Motivation for learning language in the UK.....	61
2.6 Effective teaching and learning.....	63
2.6.1 Communicative language teaching	63
2.6.2 The use of target language	73
2.6.3 The importance of having qualified teachers.....	77
2.6.4 Literature on teachers' teaching and learning goals.....	79
2.7 Conclusion.....	81
Chapter 3: Methodology	82
Introduction.....	82
3.1 Addressing the research questions.....	83

3.2 The pragmatism stance and mixed methods design.....	85
3.2.1 Examining the qualitative and quantitative approach to the current study.....	89
3.3 Research design	95
3.3.1 Research Procedure.....	95
3.3.2 The Pilot Study	98
3.3.3 Procedure of conducting the main research	101
3.3.4 Instruments and methods of data collection.....	105
3.4 Data analysis	121
3.4.1 Transcribing data.....	121
3.4.2 Coding data	125
3.5 Validity and Reliability	127
3.6 Ethical issues.....	130
3.6.1 Language considerations.....	132
Conclusion	136
Chapter 4: Rationales for Introducing Mandarin Chinese: Views of Head Teachers and Heads of Department	138
Introduction.....	138
4.1 The rationales for introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language	139
4.1.1 Impact on global context and the status of Mandarin Chinese	139
4.1.2 Impact on schools' needs	142
4.1.3 Impact on pupils' personal needs	147
4.2 Patterns of provision in schools teaching Mandarin	150
4.2.1 Enrichment and the mainstream curriculum	150
4.2.2 Availability of qualifications.....	152
4.2.3 Year group provision.....	153
4.2.4 China featuring in other subjects	154
4.3 Support for teaching Mandarin Chinese.....	155
4.3.1 Initial and in-service training	155
4.3.2 Tutor support.....	156
4.3.3 Activities	157
4.4 Further challenges facing schools	160
Conclusion.....	163
Chapter 5 Teaching and Learning Mandarin Chinese in Practices	165
Introduction.....	165
5.1 Relevant professional teacher training	165
5.2 Teachers' goals of teaching	168
5.3 Teaching materials.....	171
5.4 Issues in teaching	175
5.4.1 Classroom layout	176
5.4.2 Class size.....	176
5.4.3 Resources	177
5.4.4 Tutor support system.....	182
5.4.5 Schemes of work.....	183
5.4.6 Target language used by the teacher	185
5.4.7 Classroom activities	186
5.4.8 Classroom practices	188

5.4.9	Balance of the language skills.....	196
5.4.10	Teachers' situation.....	199
5.4.11	Gender groups in language learning.....	202
Conclusion		202
Chapter 6 Pupils' feedbacks on learning Mandarin Chinese in a sample of schools in an English educational context		204
Introduction.....		204
6.1	Pupils' background information	206
6.2	When did pupils start learning Mandarin?	209
6.3	Why did you choose Mandarin?	210
6.4	Do pupils enjoy their Mandarin class?.....	214
6.5	Do you like your Mandarin teacher?.....	217
6.6	What do pupils usually do during the Mandarin lesson?	219
6.7	What do you like most and least about learning Mandarin?	223
6.8	Is the Mandarin lesson different from other language lessons?	228
6.9	Can learning Mandarin help you do other subjects better?	229
6.10	Will pupils continue learning Mandarin?.....	232
6.11	Do parents support pupils learning Mandarin?	233
6.12	What do you think about the way your teachers teach Mandarin?	235
6.13	Pupils' suggestions and advices for teachers	236
6.14	What aspects of China and Chinese culture would you like to know about?	237
Conclusions.....		238
Chapter 7: Discussion		239
Introduction.....		239
7.1	The rationale for introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language in a sample of schools in England.....	240
7.1.1	Link schools in China and England	240
7.1.2	Towards intercultural competence	243
7.2	Classroom practice in the teaching of Mandarin	247
7.2.1	Teaching materials	247
7.2.2	Teachers' professional development.....	254
7.2.3	Continuity and progression	259
7.2.4	Staff recruitment	265
7.3	Classroom activities.....	267
7.3.1	The balancing in language skills.....	268
7.4	Pupils' and teachers' perceptions	270
7.5	Gender differences in learning Mandarin Chinese	273
Conclusion		276
Chapter 8: Conclusion.....		278
8.1	Overview of key research findings.....	278
8.1.1	Findings from interviews with Head Teachers and the Heads of Department.....	279
8.1.2	Findings from interviews with Teachers of Mandarin Chinese	281
8.1.3	Findings from classroom observations	283
8.1.4	Findings from questionnaires to pupils.....	284
8.2	Limitations of the research	285

8.3 The research contributions	287
8.3.1 Theoretical contribution.....	290
8.4 Recommendations for further research.....	291
Conclusion	292
Bibliography	293
Appendixes	324

List of TABLES

Table 2.1 Number of Chinese language assistants in UK schools, 2001–2008. ...	30
Table 3.1 Research questions and suitable research tools.....	91
Table 3.2 Field work procedures.....	97
Table 3.3 The main research procedures.....	97
Table 3.4 Schools' profile.....	103
Table 3.5 Teacher's profile.....	116
Table 3.6 Head Teachers' and Heads' of MFL Department information.....	117
Table 3.7 No. of classes observed.....	119
Table 3.8 No. of lesson observations.....	119
Table 3.9 Data analysis sheet (sample).....	124
Table 3.10 Abbreviations of data source.....	126
Table 4.1 The provision of Mandarin Chinese in different years of study....	154
Table 5.1 Teaching Resources.....	180
Table 5.2 Activities/Balance of interaction.....	189
Table 6.1 What pupils usually do during the Mandarin lesson.....	220
Table 6.2 What pupils like most about learning Mandarin.....	224
Table 6.3 What pupils like least about learning Mandarin.....	224

List of Graphs

Graph 2.1 Most popular language GCSEs.....	46
Graph 3.1 Overview of data analysis.....	122
Graph 6.1 Pupils' Age.....	205
Graph 6.2 Languages pupils use at home.....	209
Graph 6.3 When pupils started learning Mandarin.....	210
Graph 6.4 Why do you choose Mandarin?.....	211
Graph 6.5 Do pupils enjoy their Mandarin .class?.....	214
Graph 6.6 Do you like Mandarin teacher?.....	218
Graph 6.7 Is learning Mandarin different from other language lesson?.....	228
Graph 6.8 Do you think learning Mandarin help you do other subjects better?.....	231
Graph 6.9 Will pupils continue learning Mandarin?.....	231
Graph 6.10 Do parents support pupils learning Mandarin?.....	234

List of Pictures

Picture 5-1: Wall decoration	178
Picture 5-2: Pupils' activities in Chinese classes	178
Picture 5-3: 2008 Beijing Olympic Games' mascots	179
Picture 5-4: Designing posters with Beijing Olympic Games' mascots.....	179
Picture 5-5: Pupil's homework.....	197
Picture 5-6: Writing practices.....	197

List of Appendixes

Appendix 1 Interview questions for Heads of schools and Heads of Department (guide)	325
Appendix 2 Interview questions to teachers (guide)	327
Appendix 3 Lesson observation pro forma	328
Appendix 4 Questionnaires to Pupils.....	331
Appendix 5 Questionnaires to Head of School/Head of Foreign Languages Department	334
Appendix 6 Example of lesson -GCSE class	337
Appendix 7 Example of lesson- in School B	339
Appendix 8 Example of lesson- in Schools D and E	341
Appendix 9 Example of ‘Read and Match Game’	343
Appendix 10 Pupils’ interview form in classroom practices.....	344
Appendix 11 Attendance	345
Appendix 12 Gendered attitudes towards learning Mandarin Chinese.....	346
Appendix 13 Sample of Edexcel textbook	347
Appendix14 A sample of Edexcel textbook content.....	348
Appendix 15 Chinese for GCSE (Student Book III)	349
Appendix 16 Sample for Kuaile Hanyu Content	350
Appendix 17 Kuaile Hanyu Textbook.....	351
Appendix 18 Kuaile Hanyu practic	352

Chapter 1 Introduction

This thesis aims to explore the rationale for introducing Mandarin Chinese into a sample of secondary schools in England; investigating teachers' routine practice including teaching methods and teaching goals in addition to examining teachers' and pupils' perspectives on teaching and learning Chinese Mandarin as a foreign language. The thesis reviews the history of this initiative and examines aspects to be considered when teaching and learning Mandarin as a foreign language. It undertakes a critical examination of how Mandarin Chinese has been introduced into English speaking countries and further explores the processes of introducing it as a new language into the National Curriculum in England.

The current chapter seeks to explain that the drive to introduce Mandarin Chinese into English schools is rooted in Britain's economic, cultural and social developing needs. These factors have contributed to the development and promotion of learning Mandarin Chinese in English schools and form the rationale for its introduction despite having to deal with apparent challenges; differing teaching and learning styles during the routine practice of teaching and teachers' and pupils' perceptions based on their teaching and learning experiences. It is therefore timely to look at such processes as China moves into a significant position in the world economic order and the teaching of Mandarin Chinese has become essentially more important.

I begin this chapter with my personal engagement with the research (section 1.1) and the rationale for the study (section 1.2). The research questions are then introduced (section 1.3) followed by a brief outline of the research design (see section 1.4). The significance of this study is discussed (section 1.5) and finally the structure of the thesis is set out (section 1.6).

1.1 Personal engagement with the research

In the summer of 2003, I came to England to undertake my undergraduate studies, which were unrelated to language teaching and learning. A friend, who was completing her Master's degree at the Institute of Education, invited me to a local school, where she was volunteering once a week. She did not teach the children Chinese characters, only simple greetings and basic communication skills. She commented that she spent most of the time sharing traditional Chinese stories, or showing pictures and videos about modern China. My friend wished to show the pupils a Chinese custom that enabled pupils and teachers to participate, instead of watching video or telling stories, and to further their learning about the Chinese culture. I was invited to perform Kung Fu Tea (功夫茶), during Christmas of 2004, as this was a tradition I performed on a daily basis at home in Xiamen, in the southeast of China.

During my visit, I spoke mainly English, only saying “Hello” and “Goodbye” in Chinese when I arrived and left. That was the first time I had been to the local school and engaged in conversations with the pupils and teachers there. Indeed, this was the first time that I was aware that local schools were teaching Mandarin Chinese, although in fact, the children were learning more about the cultural elements of the country rather than the language itself. This surprised me, because before this, I was under the impression that state schools in England were only teaching European languages such as French, German and Spanish. My contact with the teachers and pupils showed me that they were exceptionally interested in China since it seemed to be a mysterious and unfamiliar country to them. This aroused my interest in the teaching and learning of Mandarin Chinese in schools in England.

I studied for my Master’s degree in England between 2005 and 2006. Prior to this, I went to the Institute of Education to enquire about their PGCE course in language teaching as I expected to be a high quality teacher of Mandarin Chinese after a year’s professional training. Unfortunately, at that time, only European languages were included in the languages PGCE. Mandarin Chinese was not an eligible language; therefore I did not have the chance to train as a teacher in my chosen language. During my Master’s degree, I was afforded the opportunity to visit local state schools, organised by the course tutor. After visiting two schools and observing classes within languages, arts and science modules, I started to recognize that there were numerous

differences between Chinese and English schools in terms of classroom management, teaching resources and activities available; which really excited me and I began to search for relevant literature material to further my understanding of this phenomenon.

A local state school advertised for a Mandarin teacher for their Key Stage 3 pupils for a two week period in 2006 and I discussed this opportunity with the Head Teacher. Prior to becoming a Head Teacher he had been a foreign language teacher and was very keen to introduce Mandarin Chinese to pupils in his school, considering that it would be very helpful for the school's reputation and for the pupils' future career plans. As a result of the discussion, I began my first teaching experience. The pupils showed the greatest enthusiasm for listening to traditional stories, playing games, and watching videos rather than learning and remembering how to write Chinese characters and pronounce words. Meanwhile, I became aware that the Head of the Modern Foreign Languages Department was less enthusiastic to introduce Mandarin Chinese into the school than the Head Teacher. She regarded Mandarin Chinese as a suitable lunch club activity and had limited ideas about teaching approaches for Mandarin and what she expected pupils to learn and gain from it. During conversations with her, she commented that China was too far away from the pupils' lives; she did not believe that people needed Mandarin Chinese in England and did not consider that their pupils had the ability to learn the language, as they were not considered to be high achieving pupils. Nevertheless, I was able to sense that if there

was a workable curriculum for teachers to follow and teachers made schemes of work and designed classroom activities based on such, it could have had a positive effect on the teaching of Mandarin Chinese in the school. Attempting to transfer the theoretical teaching methods in modern foreign languages into Mandarin Chinese classes in an English educational setting seemed problematic, thus considering local context was paramount.

Furthermore, my first teaching experience aroused my interest in terms of how to teach Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language in an English educational context. I had first-hand experience of the Chinese educational system when I was growing up, which consisted of teacher-centered and task-based teaching methods. However, when I came to the UK to do my undergraduate studies, I felt a sense of culture shock. Unlike the Chinese model of teaching, in England, teachers and students' relationships were more equal. The classes were more student-centered and incorporated a variety of communicative aspects. Teachers were more like facilitators rather than simply answering students' questions. Therefore, I believed that to teach Mandarin, whilst adopting traditional Chinese teaching methods would not be successful in England given the differing styles. According to CILT (2007) 'a large proportion of the Mandarin teachers were native speakers', and as native Chinese speakers who had a Chinese educational background, as I did, It is essential to find a teaching method that is able to match pupils' customary style of learning.

Such experiences gradually stimulated my interest and drive to introduce Mandarin Chinese in English state schools. In addition, the Chinese government's policy on teaching Chinese as a foreign language abroad was mainly addressed by annually sending native foreign language assistants to different countries and setting up Confucius Institutes. At that time, news about introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new foreign language abroad often appeared in the Chinese media, which greatly inspired me and indications were that teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese was incredibly popular worldwide, including in England.

As a researcher studying abroad for more than 7 years, my original philosophy about education was heavily influenced by the Chinese culture; however it has certainly been re-shaped over time and is now a combination of Chinese and Western perspectives. In this sense, my interest in this thesis is concerned with why English secondary schools wish to introduce Mandarin Chinese, to explore teaching methods and goals and to ascertain the challenges in introducing Mandarin as a foreign language based on schools' customary practice of teaching. It also aims to explore pupils' feedback on their Mandarin Chinese learning experience. With these particular emphases, the study seeks to engage with the rationale and issues behind teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in England. I sought to understand the relevant knowledge and background information by examining Mandarin Chinese teaching as a foreign language, particularly in an English educational context whilst considering

the day-to-day operations within the framework of historical and current cultural, social and economic factors.

1.2 Rationale for the study

The National Curriculum shows that ‘education must enable us to respond positively to the opportunities and challenges of the rapidly changing world in which we live and work’ (TheNationalCurriculum 2004). In addition to pure linguistic skills training, ‘helping pupils to understand and appreciate different cultures and countries and to think of themselves as citizens of the world’ (DFEE/QCA 1999) has become a more important approach in modern foreign language teaching and learning within the national curriculum in England. Moreover, according to Moon (2001) ‘the structure of employment in the twenty-first century is likely to have a greater European and international character. The ability to communicate in a second or third language, or even to learn a new one quickly, could become crucial to many jobs’. In this respect, Mandarin Chinese would seem to be a good choice for modern foreign language departments where there is a perceived need for students to acquire a new language, on recognising China’s fast developing economy, its increasing importance in the world and its international relations to Britain.

1.3 Research Questions

The present study chooses to focus on the current situation relating to teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in a sample of secondary schools in England. In aiming to investigate this research objective, the study has a single overarching research question: *How and why is Mandarin Chinese introduced into a sample of secondary schools in England?*

- Three subsidiary questions are posited in order to provide a comprehensive answer to the central research question, which are:
- What are the reasons for introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language in a sample of schools in the English context?
- What are the teaching methods used and what are the teacher's goals in Mandarin Chinese teaching?
- What are pupils' views about teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese?

The first question aims to examine and understand the practical factors and reasoning of introducing Mandarin Chinese in each of the schools in this study. In particular, UK policy and the broader social, cultural, and economic trends which influence schools to introduce Mandarin Chinese as a new language are investigated. The second question pays particular attention to teachers' usual teaching practice. According to CILT's (2007) report, the majority of teachers of Mandarin in the UK

are native Chinese speakers. Considering that Chinese teachers have long been treated as the pivotal role within classes (Wu 2010), it is interesting and essential to investigate, in-depth, how they teach Chinese Mandarin as a foreign language. Moreover, teachers' own motivation and their own goals in teaching Mandarin abroad are worth identifying, insofar as they may affect their attitudes towards teaching. The third question aims to explore teachers' and pupils' perceptions of teaching and learning Chinese Mandarin generated through their experiences regarding everyday practice.

1.4 A brief outline of the research design

This research focuses on the central question and sub-questions mentioned in the last section. In order to explore and investigate, a mixed methods research approach was adopted, involving data collection through questionnaires, observations and interviews respectively.

From visiting schools and talking to participants, the researcher gained a sense that some Head Teachers and teachers of Mandarin Chinese involved in the pre-test study demonstrated positive responses to the questions raised by the researcher, and appeared to put on their best performance for the visitor. In order to protect the reliability of the data collected in this research, questionnaires, observations and

interviews were adopted to gain a broad picture from several angles, whilst enabling the researcher to identify issues emerging from the study.

In this study, the data were collected through a survey of pupils' perceptions; interviews with school Head Teachers, the Heads of MFLs, (modern foreign language) Department and interviews with teachers of Mandarin Chinese in the five schools incorporated into the study. Questionnaires were sent to pupils who participated in the Mandarin classes which I visited to seek data on their feedback and perceptions of their teachers of Mandarin whilst considering their own learning experiences. The data was analysed and subsequently generated a series of statistics showing how pupils perceive their learning experiences and their perceptions, which provided supportive information for the subsequent observations and interviews data analysis. A series of class observations were conducted with five teachers of Mandarin Chinese in each school. Observations were carried out over five school terms, so as to collect a comprehensive view of teaching practices. Semi-structured in-depth interviews with two Head Teachers, five Heads of MFLs Departments and five teachers of Mandarin Chinese were also conducted. These interviews provided a valuable insight into the way practitioners teach in their customary practice. The data was coded, categorized, simplified and interpreted. Two teachers of Mandarin Chinese preferred to communicate in Chinese during their interview, therefore the transcriptions of their interviews were sent to them by email, for verification. This ensured that they were

satisfied that the interview was clearly recorded and presented which helped to minimize any potential misunderstandings or bias during the process of organizing data for subsequent data analysis and discussion.

1.5 The significance of this study

This research seeks to investigate why a sample of English schools sought to introduce Mandarin Chinese into their teaching timetable. It aims to shed light on the reality of current Mandarin Chinese teaching and learning patterns in practice, by searching for a meaningful understanding of practitioners' constructions of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese. It also attempts to give a voice to teachers of Mandarin Chinese and pupils' alike by exploring their perceptions of their teaching and learning experiences. Through the investigation, issues embedded in the everyday practice of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese are revealed; the study identifies the challenges that occur in terms of teachers teaching experience and their own position as a native Chinese speaker teaching abroad and the challenges associated with pupils' perceptions of learning Mandarin as a foreign language. By collecting data from a variety of sources, the findings from this research provides information from different angles and presents an image of the context of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in England.

Topics such as teaching methods; teacher and pupil interaction; target language; teachers' and pupils' perceptions, as mentioned in this research, have been very well researched areas in the teaching and learning of modern foreign languages domain. However, insofar in relation to a specifically Mandarin Chinese context, these areas have been largely unexplored in the secondary and foreign language literature and little is known about the motivation for schools to introduce Mandarin Chinese and Mandarin Chinese FLAs' teaching experiences and their perceptions in an English educational context. Hence, this research endeavours to make an important contribution to the literature on teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language in England. It is hoped that the findings can enhance foreign language literature by informing the practices of educators from both China e.g. Hanban and UK e.g. the British Council. In addition, efforts were made to follow the procedures in place for the conduct of research in teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language.

Moreover, as the Chinese language is different from Indo-European language families, this study will not only apply to introducing Mandarin Chinese into the English educational context. Additionally, it seeks to provide insights into situations where Mandarin Chinese is introduced as a foreign language, and where schools are able to draw on the involvement of foreign language assistants or native Chinese teachers with traditional language teaching methods.

1.6 Outline and structure of the thesis

This thesis includes eight chapters. Following the introductory chapter (**Chapter 1**), a review of the related literature is presented in **Chapter 2**. This review includes the fundamental theories and concepts that underpin this study. It starts with a historical review of overseas policies in introducing Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language. The current situation of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese overseas, especially within the English educational context will then be explored. As research into teaching Mandarin Chinese as a new language in England is limited, this chapter addresses the concept of Chinese being taught as a heritage language, community language or a second language for Chinese and non-Chinese speakers in an English speaking context in different countries, and then narrows the field of enquiry down to teaching Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language within the English educational context. The chapter continues with available published empirical research on teaching and learning MFL and particularly, teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language. It also refers to research evidence that is of importance in teaching and learning MFL, for example teaching methods, the use of the target language, classroom management and teaching materials. In so doing, the chapter builds up a detailed framework to underpin the investigation of this research. **Chapter 3** presents a detailed description of the research methodology applied in this research as well as the design and the process of undertaking the study is covered. The notions

of validity, reliability, and ethics are also included in this chapter. It considers the research questions and the overall objectives of this research. Following this, the chapter clarifies the choice of adopting a mixed methods approach and also presents the research design, and the conduct of the fieldwork, which includes the rationale for choosing the sample of schools and the selection of research instruments. Finally, the data analysis is introduced. The data is then conceptualized in **Chapter 4, Chapter 5 and Chapter 6. Chapter 4 and Chapter 5** present the detailed data used to answer research sub-questions 1 and 2. The findings from the interviews and classroom observations in the five schools are described and interpreted in this chapter. The data gained from the interviews and observations are examined and explained to explore the rationale for introducing Mandarin as a new language in the five schools, is investigated. **Chapter 6** draws attention to the findings from the questionnaire survey with participating pupils. The data gained from the questionnaire is used to answer the third research sub-question. It aims is to understand the pupils' views about learning Mandarin Chinese. Based on the data analysis and the study of the relevant research on foreign language teaching and background information, **Chapter 7** builds up a discussion in terms of relevant patterns and themes, in order to support the research findings. **Chapter 8** provides a summary of the key findings from the research and the resulting impact they have on the research questions. It discusses the relevant literature, the research design and the findings, and highlights the main contributions of this research. The limitations of this research also are evaluated in

this chapter, whilst suggestions for future investigations into teaching Mandarin Chinese as a new language in England are provided.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

It is clear there is an extensive literature base that focuses on teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language, as well as large scale research projects into the teaching and learning of other European languages such as French, German, and Spanish, however there is relatively little published material on the teaching or learning of Chinese as a foreign language within state schools at the time of this research, in 2007. In the past five years, research in this field has developed somewhat; nonetheless, most of the published research tends to focus on Mandarin Chinese teaching and learning in community schools for Chinese children (Archer, Francis et al. 2009; Wei and Wu 2009; Zhang and Li 2010) and in British higher education (Hu 2010). Meanwhile, in some published work (Anderson 2008) that focuses on community and heritage languages in multilingual Britain, the teaching and learning of Mandarin Chinese has formed a central theme.

This thesis aims to ascertain the reasons behind state and independent schools introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new foreign language to pupils and explores teachers' teaching goals and teaching methods through their everyday practice. It further focuses on pupils who are non-native Chinese speakers, as well as on pupils' and teachers' perceptions of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese. This chapter further aims to review the relevant background information and the research literature

in the field of teaching and learning foreign languages in England, specifically in Mandarin Chinese, whilst including the theoretical framework that is the foundation of this thesis.

This chapter begins by reviewing the research relating to teaching and learning Mandarin globally (See 2.1). The countries reviewed here are English speaking countries, all of which have the most dominant international language as a first language. These research findings will serve to fill in some research gaps in teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in schools within England. It then discusses the context for introducing Mandarin in England (See 2.2). In this section, the story of the Chinese people in the UK will be provided; the key organizations from both England and China which play an important role in introducing Mandarin Chinese in England will be considered; moreover, an introduction to what learners are going to learn will follow. The next section focuses on the current situation of Mandarin Chinese provision in England (See 2.3). It begins with an overview of the current situation of foreign language provision in England and then focuses on Mandarin Chinese teaching and the relevant research. After this, there is a review of the motivations in foreign language teaching and learning (See 2.4), and more particularly, within a UK context (See 2.5). The final section refers more to the research question about how to teach and learn Mandarin Chinese, paying attention to effective teaching and learning (See 2.6). It includes issues about communicative language teaching, the use of target language and the importance of having qualified teachers.

2.1 Research on teaching and learning Mandarin globally

Until recently, the main stream of research, especially published research, was in the specific area of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language and relates to the history of teaching Chinese as a foreign language as well as that of Chinese linguistics (Chen 1999; Chang and Chang 2001; Kane 2006); pinyin and characters (Jen and Xu 2000; Chung 2003) or focusing on the development of listening (Chen 1983), speaking, reading (Bassetti 2005; Wang and Honig 2010) and writing (Allen 2008; Wang and Honig 2010; Wei 2010).

As there is very little published research in a similar context in England, the first part of my review will concentrate on the literature from English speaking countries where Chinese is taught.

2.1.1 America

America is a country with a rich history of immigration which has resulted in a multicultural and multiethnic society, with a number of minority languages being present. Historically, the Chinese community language schools neither had any connections nor interactions to mainstream schools at any level (Xiao 2011) as over the past 150 years, the Chinese community language schools were poorly funded and marginalized. Funding was grounded by parents' personal resources, meager

donations, and local organizations. At this time, the majority of Chinese immigrant children had some learning experiences within the Chinese community language schools, however, in recent years, “the Chinese language schools have experienced tremendous changes” (Xiao 2011, p.189). According to Xiao (2011), two organizations, the National Council of Associations of Chinese Language Schools (NCACLS) which is rooted in Taiwan and the Chinese School Association in the United States (CSAUS) which is from China strengthened connections between the Chinese community language schools and mainstream schools. Such organizations also supervised and supported the Chinese community schools by curricula development and enhanced interactions with mainstream establishments through advocacy and communication, moreover, pupils “learning in Chinese language schools in now able to be accredited by mainstream schools” (Xiao 2011, p.190).

According to Wang (2007), in recent years, Chinese has been a newcomer within US foreign language education. Now Chinese is treated as “a language critical to the US now and in the future (Wang 2007, p.36)”. It has been widely introduced through primary schools, high schools and in higher education nationwide, which is quite similar to what is occurring in the UK. In 2006, President George W. Bush “requested \$114 million for the 2007 fiscal year for critical need language” (Wang 2007, p.37) and \$27 million “was available for both the state and local education agencies”, while under the 2006 Foreign Language Assistant Program (FLAP) “Chinese and other designated critical language received funding priorities” (FLAP 2006).

Wen (1997) has explored the reasons why students chose to study Chinese. 122 students from six Chinese classes at two U.S. universities participated in this study. The report explored the motivation that lay behind adult Chinese language learning by students from Asian and Asian-American backgrounds. Participants were required to complete a two part questionnaire, which included their motivation and expectations of learning outcomes when taking Chinese classes. The questionnaire feedback showed that the interest in Chinese culture was an important motivational factor. It also revealed that individual learning goals and desired achievements could help learners to continue their Chinese studies. In addition, two more implications were present in the findings. First, there was a requirement to measure learners' oral skills in adopting the target language for communication through a single assessment system. Secondly, teachers needed to help students set realistic sub-goals during their learning journey and to assist them to develop a strong sense of self-efficacy by helping learners approach their learning goals in order to enhance their overall achievements (Bandura 1997, Dörnyei 1998).

A number of challenges now face Mandarin teaching and learning in the US. These include a love-hate relationship with foreign languages which has caused some people who were not interested in learning foreign languages to be left behind (Lantolf and Sunderman 2001); secondly, engaging with a workable teaching and learning plan and strategies is still required (Wen 1997; Wang 2007); and thirdly, although every state

has its own highly articulated assessment process for all modern languages and separate courses (Orton 2010), a modified assessment system for Mandarin teaching and learning is still expected (Wen 1997; Wang 2007).

2.1.2 Canada

The Chinese community is the fourth largest minority group in Quebec (Statistics Canada; 2001). Research into the largest Chinese heritage language school (more than 1000 students) in Montreal, Quebec, Canada (Curd-Christiansena 2006) took place over a period of two years between 2000 and 2002. It paid attention to how classroom discourse affects learners' learning processes of the Chinese language. Its research questions included an exploration of "how teachers and students use language to communicate and how their communication mediates teaching, learning and acquisition of the students' heritage language" (Curd-Christiansena 2006, p.160).

During her two year's research experience, Curd-Christiansena (2006) observed seven Chinese language arts classes at different levels between the ages of 7 and 13. Most of the students observed were from a Mandarin Chinese speaking background and a small number of them were from a non-Chinese background, mixed marriage families and Cantonese speaking families. The researcher interviewed thirteen students, chosen randomly, and seven teachers of Chinese. All interviews were videotaped. In order to collect fruitful data, she engaged in an informal conversation

with the students and their parents after class. The findings from this research indicated that the teacher played an important role in classroom discourse. The teachers' prior experiences, cultural background, education background and discursive practice would affect the conversation between them and students and "ways of their using language in class can constrain or enhance the student's participation both in learning and in the construction of knowledge" (Curd-Christiansena 2006, p.205). In addition, if the heritage language teachers' education and cultural background differed from what the students had in their everyday school life in public schools, students would struggle to continue their study in the heritage language school and adjust between two teaching and conversation styles which may make the heritage language teaching harder. According to this Canadian case, the researcher suggested greater communication between heritage schools and public schools and the teaching experiences between staff would be exchanged. She believed it would decrease the cultural and teaching differences between the heritage language school and mainstream language teaching and learning in practice, which would contribute to their pedagogical resource.

Huang (2003) and Mohan and Huang (2002) carried out their studies in Canadian public elementary schools. Both their research related the knowledge framework of knowledge structures to the content and culture of classroom work. By adopting Mohan's knowledge framework (1986) as a content-based approach in Mandarin teaching and learning as a foreign language, Huang (2003) examined the on-going

process of classroom language activities. She wished to ascertain whether a content-based approach, a form of communicative language teaching (Richards and Rodgers 2001), would reach the goals of language and culture learning for young beginners. Mohan & Huang's (2002) study aims to "explore issues of the assessment of language and content integration through an analysis of student writing, examining relations of form and meaning in discourse" (p.405).

The findings of Huang (2003) have shown that having an intermediate level is a prerequisite for receiving content-based instruction. She has also indicated that on the one hand, learning the culture and history behind a language, for example from telling tales, listening to music and watching videos would help develop pupils' abilities in understanding and employing of the target language; on the other hand, she found out that when learners use the target language in specific contexts the knowledge of the language is constructed. Huang (2003) noted that "classroom language activities organized around the knowledge framework are the bridge linking the construction of world knowledge and the development of the target language" (p.87).

2.1.3 Hong Kong

The situation regarding teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in Hong Kong is not the same as in other countries, as people in Hong Kong already speak Chinese and can usually read traditional characters. This makes for an interesting teaching and learning

situation, but not one which is analogous to the situation of young learners with only an alphabetic language.

In 1842, after Hong Kong became a British colony, English became the official language, with Cantonese being primarily a spoken language for the local people; when the Sino-British agreement concerning Hong Kong's return to Chinese sovereignty was signed in 1997, a pilot scheme was announced so that Mandarin Chinese could be taught in some primary schools in Hong Kong. The curriculum Development Council published a consultation document in 2000 regarding the key learning areas in the Chinese language for students. This highlighted a factor which may only happen in Hong Kong and Macao. Today, Hong Kong "has an official policy of trilingualism: Mandarin Chinese, Cantonese and English, and bi-literacy" (Davison and Lai 2007, p.120). Cantonese is regarded by the people of Hong Kong as their spoken language, while standard Mandarin Chinese is written language formed using traditional characters. However, Cantonese and Mandarin Chinese have different pronunciation, syntax and vocabulary; Hong Kong students always have to translate their spoken language into a written language (Curriculum Development Council 2000). Meanwhile, in most state schools, although students are taught listening, speaking, reading and writing skills theoretically, speaking and listening are the main skills to evaluate students' learning within Mandarin Chinese lessons and in contrast, in independent schools, all four skills are developed together (Davison and Lai 2007).

According to Chow's (2006) study, although Mandarin Chinese is now receiving more attention from governments and schools and families; parents today are still reported to be more concerned about their children's English abilities rather than their Mandarin Chinese. In particular, poorer working class communities have no choice of school and reject their children being multi-lingual. English always has a priority in their minds and Chow comments that by contributing to this phenomenon "the medium of instruction will slow down their assimilation into mainstream society" (Chow 2006).

According to Davison and Lai (2007), "traditional foreign language teaching in mainland China often focuses on the politics and ideology of education, whereas Hong Kong focuses on skills development and language, literature and traditional culture" (p.127). This status has contributed to a shortage of qualified staff in Mandarin teaching in Hong Kong.

2.1.4 Singapore

"Malay, Mandarin, Tamil and English are designated as official languages and Malay is chosen as the national language" (Ho and Wong 2000, p.42), therefore, Mandarin is often taught, although, as many parents speak Mandarin, the situation is not analogous to England.

Language policy for the Chinese language within Singapore has changed significantly in recent years (Tan 2006). For example, there has been a change of emphasis from writing to oral and reading skills. According to the Singapore government, they wish to encourage students to use Mandarin more frequently so as to keep themselves motivated by the language (Chinese Language Review Committee, 2004). The Minister Mentor Lee Kuan Yew has indicated that “the goal is for students to speak, listen and read at a working social level, not professional or specialist purposes” (Lee 2004 cited in Tan 2006).

2.2 The context for introducing Mandarin in England

This section reviews the context for introducing the teaching of Mandarin to schools in England. It is divided into two parts: the first, reviews the situation regarding the Chinese in the UK, and their social and language background. It also introduces key organizations in Britain and China, which work together to introduce Mandarin Chinese in England. The second part will then introduce the issue of content at the point where people start to learn Mandarin. This includes a consideration of Mandarin, Pinyin and characters.

2.2.1 Background

2.2.1.1 Chinese people in the UK

The Chinese community has become one of the biggest ethnic groups in the UK today (Parker 1999; Chan, Cole et al. 2007), with most overseas Chinese having originated from two provinces, Fujian and Guangdong, which use Min dialects and Cantonese (Ross 2006). As Hong Kong was a British colony, Britain took priority in Hong Kong people's choices, Cheng (1996) indicates that "among the 156,938 Chinese people in 1991, 34 per cent came from Hong Kong, 13 per cent came from Singapore and Malaysia, and 28 per cent were born in the UK" (Chan, Cole et al. 2007, p.512). In 2006, approximately 400,000 Chinese people lived in Britain (Li and Zhu 2011). Recently, the increased number of mainlanders became the new blood of the ongoing growth of the British Chinese community (Li and Zhu 2011).

The Chinese complementary and community schools are voluntary organizations, which run by and for the Chinese communities. Their principal objective is "to transmit the Chinese language and culture to the British-born generations" (Li and Zhu 2011, P.14). In the interests of tackling the problem of maintaining Chinese language and culture among the new generation born in the UK, the early immigrants started running complementary schools and community schools, teaching both Mandarin and Cantonese (Wu 2006). According to Song (2005), since 2000 Chinese was more likely to be taught in complementary schools and community schools than

in mainstream schools. Complementary and community schools made great contribution in introducing and supporting developments with Mandarin especially when Mandarin Chinese have not been introduced to in mainstream schools. Nowadays, the most of statistical data that they have had an impact on the teaching of Mandarin Chinese provided by government or education organizations such as CILT are based on mainstream schools rather than in complementary and community schools. Although complimentary schools did Cantonese up to 2006 there has been increasing evidence of Mandarin in complimentary schools, some of them continued catering Cantonese at the same time.

Foreign language assistant (FLA) is group who has begun to predominate in current teaching Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language in Britain (CILT 2007). Chinese FLAs are qualified teachers in China. They are selected by Hanban in China. During their teaching, Chinese FLAs brought Chinese cultural adjustment over from China. Firstly, as native Chinese speakers, Chinese FLAs brought a vivid Chinese language alive for pupils. It helps pupils raising their awareness of the Chinese language. Secondly, FLAs brought with them a wealth of resources and ideas, which include both traditional Chinese festivals and costume and updated information of today's China for example pop songs, fast food and fashions. Those resources and ideas would help students with their understanding of the language and culture in difference and creative ways, for example teach calligraphy in art classes, and food technology.

In addition, pupils would study through the use of current videos, DVDs, TV and radio programmes. Those issues would raise pupils' interests in learning Chinese language and improve pupils' confidence in speaking and understanding Chinese language and its culture.

2.2.1.2 The British Council, Hanban and Confucius Institutes

The British Council, Hanban and Confucius Institutes are three key organizations that have supported the introduction of Mandarin Chinese teaching and learning in the UK. Thus, I will review them as part of the background to my study. Before 2001, the British Council worked together with the government department of education in England, Wales and Scotland. They had an agreement to access Chinese native speakers, build up link schools between Britain and China, and introduce collaborative activities (Wang 2009). Since 2001, the HSBC Education Trust has joined this programme and has offered support to the British Council (Wang 2009). Hanban takes responsibility for recruiting teachers and volunteers in China to teach Mandarin abroad (Hanban 2011). Table 2.1 indicates the number of Chinese language assistants in UK schools and shows that the number is growing gradually year upon year.

**Table2.1 Number of Chinese language assistants in UK schools,
2001–2008**

Year	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
NO. of CLA	13	18	22	29	35	65	86	95

Source: (Wang 2009)

Hanban, the National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (NOCFL) is also known as the Office of Chinese Language Council International. “Hanban” is an acronym created from “Hanyu-Chinese language”. It was established in July 1987 and works as the main organization for the promotion and spread of Chinese Language, as its website states:

Hanban is committed to making the Chinese language and culture teaching resources and services available to the world, to meeting the demands of overseas Chinese learners to the utmost, to contributing to the formation of a world of cultural diversity and harmony (Hanban 2008).

Hanban involves 12 Central Government ministries (Chinese Ministry of Education 2005, p.118; Gil 2008). It is linked with the Ministry of Education of China and is a nonprofit organization (HanBan 2009). “Besides promoting cultural exchanges and tours, support networks for teachers and students of Chinese language, it provides a wide range of language teaching and learning support” (Lo Bianco 2007,

p.12). It develops and administers an examination system for foreign learners – Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi (汉语水平考试) (HSK), known as the Chinese Proficiency Examination (Kane 2006). Meanwhile, in 2002, the Chinese Language Bridge (汉语桥) started staging a Chinese language proficiency competition for learners in universities around the world (Zhao and Huang 2010). The Chinese teaching as a foreign language Volunteers project was initiated by Hanban. It forms “important parts of the Chinese teaching as a foreign language infrastructure and schemes in policy and practice” (Zhao and Huang 2010, p.132).

To meet the growing demand for learning the Chinese language by people in different countries and to learn the language without leaving their home countries, the Chinese government established Chinese language agencies overseas, naming them “Confucius Institutes”, after the most well-known ancient Chinese thinker and educator, Confucius. Between 2004 and 2006, there was on average one new Confucius Institute established every four days in the world. According to Zhao (2009) “the initial target of 100 Confucius Institutes by 2010 was quickly increased to over 330 by the end of 2009” (cited in Zhao and Huang 2010, p.129). Up until 2008, 249 Confucius Institutes and 56 Confucius Classrooms found a home in 78 countries and regions (Liu 2008). Featuring flexible forms of operations and embracing universities, secondary schools and primary schools, they had 130,000 registered learners attending 6000 sessions of Chinese language courses and 1.4 million people participated in the different cultural and learning exchanges programs (Liu 2008). By

the end of May 2009, 339 Confucius Institutes had been established and countries had at least one Confucius Institute (Zhao 2009). The numbers continue to increase and it seems likely that in doing studies of this type, Hanban teachers and Confucius classes may be involved.

2.2.2 Content -- Putonghua 普通话, pinyin 拼音 and characters 汉字

The type of Chinese involved in my study is Mandarin Chinese, and this review will discuss the students learning this language and relate the language to other sinitic languages, so as to explain my choice.

In 1982, the Chinese government promoted *Putonghua* throughout the country (Kane 2006; Ross 2006). All Chinese schools and public broadcasters such as radio, film, television and other institutions were asked to use standard Mandarin Chinese at the time. Under this policy, Putonghua was “spectacularly successful” and used by almost all of China’s 1.3 billion citizens (Kane 2006, p.22). Nowadays, most parts of China use *Putonghua* as well as community languages.

Chinese is written in characters (hanzi), each of which represents a syllable but which has very limited phonetic information for the reader. For this reason, pinyin, a system of transliteration using the letters of the Roman alphabet to represent the characters can be used to offer a systematic guide to the pronunciation of characters. The

majority of beginner learners, both native Chinese speakers and non-native Chinese speakers, start with pinyin instead of hanzi (characters) (Basseti 2007). Chen (1983) considered that “the use of pinyin can effectively promote the learning of Chinese characters” (cited in Chung 2003, p.208). This adds a complication for the teachers and learners, who must learn two ways of representing speech in the written form.

Chinese characters originated as stylized pictures of objects and did not represent sounds. Between AD221 to AD580 a standard script was developed which formed the basis for a form of writing that was common to all Chinese language speakers, even if the pronunciation of the written characters might vary. In the 1950s, the Government of the PRC decided to modernize and streamline the characters, producing simplified forms for approximately 2000 Chinese characters. From that time, Chinese characters began to be written in the modern Western manner; from left to right, and from top to bottom. Today, Taiwan still use Traditional Characters, and Hong Kong is currently using simplified for Mandarin but full form for Traditional Characters; whereas mainland China uses simplified characters all the time whereas mainland China uses simplified characters (Liu and Fang 2000).

This situation means that after English, Putonghua (Mandarin Chinese) is the most commonly used language in the world, and it provides the foundations for it being a good choice to be taught abroad.

2.3 Mandarin Chinese provision in England

This section discusses the current situation, relating to Mandarin Chinese provision in England. It introduces the general background of foreign language provision in England today and then focuses on why schools in England started to introduce Mandarin. Relatively little research has explored Mandarin Chinese teaching and learning in secondary schools in an English context as many existing studies of teaching Mandarin in England have focused on community schools or higher education, however, these studies still draw primarily on the literature of teaching and learning within an English context.

2.3.1 The current situation relating to language teaching in England

In England, four consecutive key stages cover the years of compulsory schooling from 5 to 16. Key stage 1(KS1), year 1-2, pupils aged 5-7; key stage 2 (KS2), years 3-6, pupils aged 7-11; key stage 3 (KS3), years 7-9, pupils aged 11-14; and key stage 4 (KS4), years 9-10, pupils aged 14-16. In general, pupils start their secondary education at the start of year 7, in KS3, aged 11 or 12 (DES/WelshOffice 1990).

The National Curriculum (NC) for MFL started in September 1992 for only Year 7, to

progress to all students at KS3 and KS4. With its introduction, it was a statutory requirement for children to be taught a foreign language from the age of 11 to 16 in England for the first time. The National Curriculum stipulated the content of what would be taught and the four attainment targets for learning (Listening and responding, speaking, reading and responding and writing). To be effective, a National Curriculum must “give teachers, pupils, parents, employers and the wider community a clear and shared understanding of the skills and knowledge that young people will gain at school” (Capel, Leask et al. 2005). In the NC for England, Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) is a foundation subject. The MFL NC sets out a clear purpose namely to enable pupils to acquire the knowledge, skills and understanding to use language for themselves. Silverstone (1992) has identified the pressure and motivation behind MFL in the NC, so as to enhance pupils’ foreign language skills to address the Free European Market (1992). In the 1980s and the 1990s, the aims of learning a language were to strengthen a sense of EU identity in young people; prepare pupils to take part in the economic and social development of the Community; increase pupils’ knowledge of the Community and its member states’ history, and the cultural, economic and social aspects to make pupils aware of the advantages they have and also of the challenges involved in cooperation and development (Central Bureau 1993, p.4). EU languages such as French and German are the mainstream languages offered in the UK, either mentioned in the National Curriculum (NC) or a requirement to be offered in schools (Pachler and Field 1997). The National Curriculum (1991) stated that schools in England had to offer at least one official European language in the list

which including Danish, Dutch, French, German, Modern Greek, Italian, Portuguese and Spanish. With the increasing commercial cooperation with non-EU countries, it added some non-European languages for pupils to choose namely Arabic, Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Japanese, Mandarin or Cantonese Chinese, Modern Hebrew, Panjabi, Russian, Turkish, Urdu (DfES 1991). The National Curriculum (1991) pointed out that not all pupils had to study a European language; it required “schools to offer at least one of the European Languages and once that requirement is met, allows them as an alternative to offer other languages listed in the schedule” (DfES 1991, p.10). This meant that EU languages were still the main choices for students from Year 8 or 10 onwards, as all pupils were required to study a modern foreign language at Key Stages 3 and 4 in England (Pachler and Field 1997).

The National Curriculum for England, published in 1995, provided a more detailed level descriptions in reading and responding to pupils studying Chinese (Cantonese or Mandarin) or Japanese. For Chinese learners, it stated that “the pronunciation of less common characters may be glossed, using pinyin or a similar romanized transcription, as follows:

Levels 1 and 2:	up to 50% of the characters
Level 3:	up to 40%
Level 4:	up to 30%
Level 5:	up to 25%
Level 6:	up to 20%

Level 7: up to 15%

Level 8: up to 10%

Exceptional performance: up to 5% of the characters.” (DfES 1995, p.10)

From August 1996, all pupils had to study a language for 5 years on either a full or short course, however, following the “Green Paper, 14-19: extending opportunities, raising standards” (DfES 2002, p.1) which included a proposal that languages should no longer be a compulsory element at KS4, this has now come in to effect. Thus, since 2004, schools are no longer required to teach MFL to all pupils at KS4, but the school still needs to offer provision for MFL as a subject for pupils at KS4, because pupils can choose to study a modern foreign language. In 2000, as part of the Government's increased commitment to language learning, the UK became a member of the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML) which provides more opportunities to develop new approaches to language teaching and learning and acts as a platform for exchanging information through the website.

The foreign language learning environment in the UK is facing considerable challenges. Language is often defined as an instrument for communication, or a symbol of people's social standing. In non-English speaking countries, learners will want to learn English for instrumental reasons and this can be seen at an early age; this impacts on learners' priorities and planning, however, in an English speaking country, “no 7 or 11-year-old's eventual foreign language need can be predicted”

(Hawkins 2005, p.4). This is because pupils have no idea about which language they can learn or what they can do with the language. Statistics demonstrate a poor take-up of languages: “Nine out of ten students drop their foreign language at 16+” (Nuffield 2000, p.50) and newspaper headlines such as “students shun language” (BBC News 1999) has highlighted the issue further. Hawkins (2005) also argues that “shunning” can now start at 14+ and with government sanction. MFL had been a statutory foundation subject from 11-16 but currently it is no longer compulsory post 14.

2.3.2 The reasons for introducing Mandarin to England

Given the declining uptake of language study in England, as discussed above, I will now review the reasons why Mandarin Chinese might be offered as a new language in English schools. One issue may be the increased importance of intercultural understanding as part of language teaching in multi-lingual and multi-cultural Britain (DfES 2002; Commission of the European Communities 2008). Recent reports have confirmed that the increased linguistic diversity of the UK, for example, in London, there is evidence that over 300 languages are used in the home and in 32 per cent of homes, English was not the first language (Baker and Eversley 2000; Gundara 2000). Compared to the language census in 1989 by the Inner London Education Authority, which revealed that only 184 different languages were spoken in London’s schools (ILEA 1989) the number of languages spoken continues to increase. A gradual change in the teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in England has seen greater importance

being placed on students' knowledge of the culture of the language's origins and does not merely provide vocal and linguistic skills (DfES 2002; DfES 2007). Language learners and teachers understand the importance of learning a foreign language, as it can significantly contribute to the "personal, social, cultural and general linguistic development of pupils in preparation for their adult lives, both for work and leisure." (Pachler and Field 1997, p.2).

Other reasons for teaching Mandarin may be linked to world economic changes. China as a country has the world's fastest growing economy, so that striking deals with Chinese business is now a top priority for companies around most parts of the world if they want to stay ahead in global trade. In 2004, there were more than 25 million Chinese Mandarin learners in over 100 countries (China Daily 2004) and the numbers has continued to increase. BBC China (2006) reported that the UK wants to give pupils a head start by teaching them Mandarin, indeed, Alan Johnson, the Education Secretary in 2007, stated that he wanted schools to provide Chinese courses and start to teach Mandarin in order to help pupils compete in a global economy (White 2007). In practice, about 4,000 students nationwide sat GCSE Mandarin in 2006, although many of them were ethnic Chinese (Times Online, 2007a). In early 2007, Johnson commented that there was a plan to making proposals to the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) to allow pupils aged 11 to 14 to have more choice in MFL courses proposing they should no longer be compelled to study an EU language, but could choose other world languages such as Mandarin or Urdu

(Times Online, 2007b).

In recent years, the number of non-Chinese learners studying Mandarin has increased rapidly. It is estimated that “there are about 40 million non-native speakers learning Mandarin at present and that this will increase to about 100 million by the year 2010, requiring five million teachers of Chinese as a foreign language” (The People’s Daily 2006 cited in CILT 2007, p.91). However, school educational policy still continues to hamper the development of Chinese teaching and learning in the UK, while having suitable teaching materials and the absence of qualified teachers continue to be further issues that are experienced. Song (2005) notes in particular that it is more usual to teach in weekend schools and independent schools, as opposed to mainstream institutions. Meanwhile, the National Centre for Languages (CILT) reported (CILT 2007) a rapid development of provision and that a range of institutions (specialist language colleges, high-achieving schools and independent schools) are likely to teach Mandarin than other schools. According to CILT (2006), meanwhile, in excess of 300 state schools in England were teaching a Chinese language at that time, while CILT (2007) has estimated that between 400 and 500 secondary schools in England were offering Mandarin Chinese. More than 3,000 candidates sat a GCSE in Mandarin or Cantonese (a language spoken in South East China and Hong Kong) according to the British Council (2006), but these figures did not specify which language was examined. According to Edexcel and AQA examination boards (2011), the total entries for GCSE covering both Mandarin Chinese and Cantonese in June

2011 have dropped by 42.3% from 3,648 candidates in 2010 to 2,104 candidates in 2011.

Compared with its major European competitors, “the UK did not perform well in exporting to China” (HEFCE 1999, p.5), in response to this, the National Languages Strategy (DfES 2006) recommended teaching a wider range of languages in schools, with greater opportunity for languages such as Mandarin. Meanwhile, according to Hanban (2008) the Chinese government “has a mission to increase the number of non-Chinese Mandarin speakers in the world. The National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language was created to the Chinese language and culture to meet the needs of Chinese language learners abroad.”

In Britain, in 1998, Chinese language had the fourth largest number of A level modern language entries, above Italian, and the sixth largest number of GCSE language entries. There is no data for the ethnic background of these students, but it would appear from the candidates’ names that many of them are from a Chinese origin. Certainly, many of the Hong Kong children who sit GCSE and A levels either in England or abroad sit Chinese language papers, therefore, many of these Chinese language candidates are likely to be native speakers. In 1999, 1336 (home) and 679 (overseas) candidates were registered with Edexcel for Chinese A level, and 2170 (home) and 66 (overseas) for GCSE Chinese. There are no published statistics which distinguish the numbers taking Cantonese (one of the Chinese dialects used in south

China and Hong Kong) from those taking Mandarin at GCSE, because the same tape with Cantonese on one side and Mandarin on the other is used to match the tick box sheets in the examinations. The National Curriculum always comments in terms of “Chinese (Cantonese or Mandarin)”. Before 2001, the A Level was very traditional, requiring, for example, that candidates rewrite a piece of Classical Chinese prose in modern Chinese, whereas the new Edexcel A Level Chinese proposal for 2001 is more concerned with giving a “solid grounding in language skills and knowledge of the culture” (HEFCE 1999, p.3). The Review of Chinese Studies (HEFCE 1999) quotes the British Council as observing “that the Chinese language has never seemed more likely than at present to emerge as a major international language alongside English in the next millennium” (1999, p.7).

There has been a regular increase in the number of candidates taking both the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) and A2 Chinese. According to Henley’s (2008) report published in *Guardian Education*, between 2003 and 2006, it revealed that the number of candidates taking the GCSE in Chinese went up by 45%, with the number of candidates’ entries for Chinese at Advanced Level (A-level) also increasing by 32%. The report further shows that up until 2007, there were up to 14% fewer GCSE entries for Mandarin (for 15 year olds), and an increase of 81% in A2 entries (for 16 to 18 year olds) (CILT 2007). The data collected by the National Centre for Languages (CILT) (2007) proves the rapid expansion of Mandarin teaching in English schools. It also estimates “more specialist language colleges, high-achieving schools

and independent schools were now more likely to teach Mandarin than other schools” (Wang and Higgins 2008). CILT (2007) has reported that about 400 and 500 secondary schools in England were running Mandarin courses, which was an increase from 300 state schools in their research in 2006. Furthermore, the British Council (2006) stated that almost 4000 candidates sat a GCSE in either Mandarin Chinese or Cantonese, although it did not clarify the language and the percentage of each language examined. This shows a shift of candidate entries between these 2 exams, particularly for native speakers. Chinese was one of four languages showing a higher numbers of boys than girls as candidates. This reflects the notion that these are native speakers, and not merely pupils wishing to study foreign languages at school.

China’s stable financial system and continuing economic growth is changing foreign countries’ attitudes towards Mandarin Chinese worldwide (Gil 2008). In England, people have less motivation to learn foreign languages, owing to the international status of English. Indeed, the mantra “English is enough” has been cited frequently (Coleman, Galaczi et al. 2007; Macaro 2008a). Historically, in England, languages were an optional subject for pupils in school (Hawkins 1997). Since the early 1990s, Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) have become a foundation subject in the National Curriculum for all pupils from 11 to 16. This age range includes Key Stage 3 and 4, compulsory secondary school students and works towards GCSE. From August 1996, the inclusion of a language at KS3 and KS 4 became compulsory. The result of this policy was a huge increase in the numbers taking a GCSE in a foreign language. As

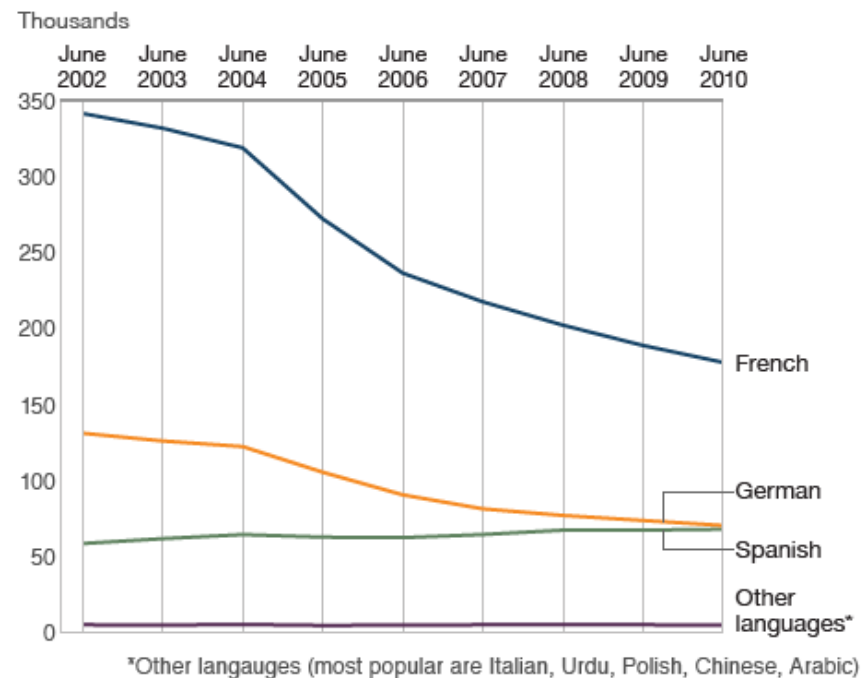
Mitchell (2003) has pointed out, only one child in 10 could gain the certificate at age 16 in 1977, and by 2001, 78% were entered and 40% of them achieved the certificate. In 2004, a language was no longer a compulsory module for post-14 (QCA 2004); this meant that pupils in KS4 did not have to learn a language. This led to a dramatic decline in the number of students taking up language post-14 (Coleman, Galaczi et al. 2007). “The number of students studying languages [at key stage 4] is much reduced, largely because the subject is no longer statutory” (Ofsted 2008, p.4). According to GCSE results in 2010 (Table 2.2 below), “the number of students taking French and German in this year are both just more than half the number in 1999 ... AQA exam board head Andrew Hall said this year’s drop of 5.9% had pushed French out of the top 10 subjects”(BBC News 2010).

As Graph 2.1 presents, the decline has particularly happened since 2004 and marked in French and German, which were two traditional popular languages at English schools. The policy change making languages optional after Key Stage 3 in 2004 triggered the actual fall in GCSE entries (DfES 2007). On the one hand, there is substantial evidence that for pupils who achieved little in FLs, or who simply not been encouraged to study FLs, or who lack interest in take-up of specialist FL degrees in the future would not choose FLs subjects in GCSE. On the other hand, grade boundaries in exams were substantially increased, with many reporting a drop in the number pupils scoring a A* or A. Schools who saw FL subjects as a threat to their position in rankings led schools “to desist from both teaching all their pupils and

entering them for GCSE well in advance of the change in regulation becoming statutory” (Coleman 2009, p.113). Ofsted (2008c) indicated that the Department for Education decided that FLs are no longer statutory is the reason which occurred the reducing of the number of students studying languages at Key Stage 4. Furthermore, lack of curriculum time is another reason led the decline. “1 hour a week is inadequate to develop substantial language proficiency” (Coleman 2009). In addition, the fallacy of the “English is enough” is another substantial evidence of the decline. The unpopularity of language subjects with pupils who found that after a period of FL study only few efforts showed while the FL language became difficult and boring. This factor decreases their motivation and confidence in continuing learning FL.

Graph 2.1 Most popular language GCSEs

Most popular language GCSEs (thousands of entries)



Source: JCQ

However, the most significant factor in encouraging people to learn a foreign language is that of personal need. Compared with people's personal motivation, "a rationale dictated by academics or policy makers is meaningless" (De Bot 2007, p.274). This was reinforced by the then Prime Minister Gordon Brown in 2008, when he declared in a speech to the Specialist Schools and Academies Trust (SSAT) that "as the global economy expands, Britain can attract companies because of the skills that we have to offer here. If you have skills educated in Britain, you can work almost anywhere in any part of the world" (Coleman 2009, p.115). It is to be hoped that his speech might arouse people's motivation to learn a skill such as a foreign language which aims to provide people more chances in their future career development.

2.3.3 Research on teaching Mandarin in England

Now that one-fifth of the world's population speaks Chinese and given the increasingly important world role of the People's Republic of China since the Open Door policy of the 1980s, the British education system needs to look more closely at its provision for teaching the Chinese language (Chan, 2007). This is seen in the new Government-backed initiative in Chinese Studies in Higher Education from the very beginning of the 21st century. At present, not only universities, but more and more state schools are starting to introduce Chinese language classes for students from KS3(aged 11-14) to fulfill the Government's aim to have more Chinese speakers in this country (CILT, 2007). The Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) "Review of Chinese Studies" (1999) noted that "any future expansion in Chinese language studies in HE might be hampered by their scarcity in secondary schools" (p.11).

Existing studies of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in England can be organized into several categories. They focus on either teachers of Mandarin or learners from various education backgrounds and the number of participants varied. Research was carried out into community schools (CILT 1981; Chann 1984; CILT 1986; Ghuman and Wong 1989), secondary schools (Wang, 2009; Higgins & Sheldon, 2001) and universities (Wang & Higgins, 2008). Their research was aimed at learning

difficulties, teaching difficulties and cultural awareness, amongst other factors. Teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese is the area that seems to have received most attention from different researchers.

The latest relevant review at the time in 2007 when I started this study, was a research report called “Mandarin Language Learning”(2007) published by CILT, the National Centre for Languages. It provided some key findings in Mandarin teaching and learning in primary schools, secondary school and higher education. This report includes two surveys, the Language Trends survey covered Key Stage 4 (KS4) and sixth form only, and the Mandarin survey also includes KS3 teaching as well. A Language Trends survey was carried out in 2006 in Key Stage 4, with 1,086 schools responding to the study. The survey presents statistical data relating to Mandarin in participant schools’ background, such as the inspection of the achievements and changes of DfES and JCQ data trends in Chinese GCSE, AS and A2 level entries. By way of investigating how Mandarin Chinese language learning taking place in schools within England, another survey was conducted in Autumn 2006. This included sending out questionnaires and school visits. The questionnaire aimed to explore Mandarin provisions in schools; they were sent to a total of 773 schools which differed in sizes and included maintained schools, independent schools, six forms, and secondary schools across England. It was also sent out to the Head of Languages at the end of January 2007. This survey found that “Mandarin was offered at Key Stage 4 or at sixth form in 9.6% of all schools (6.5% for maintained and 24 % for

independent schools)”(CILT 2007, p.8). Six school visits were undertaken, which included in-depth interviews concerning schools’ Mandarin provision. The report had five case studies under five key themes together with both qualitative and quantitative data responses. Although the report is a summary of survey responses, as it did not provide a detailed description and analysis of each the issues they listed in the report and data frequency tables in appendix, it offered an explicit report of the case studies and chose to report the finding under key themes. This survey, at the time, still informed me of the general background of teaching and learning Mandarin in secondary schools in an English context; it further highlighted key issues such as staffing, teaching materials and mainstream curriculum.

Most of the studies before 2007 were conducted to address the issues of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in the community or complementary schools in England. In 1985, the government published a report – Swann Report, officially called *Education for All* (DES 1985), which recommended a multicultural education system, and drew on research undertaken in different types of institutions and with different ethnicities. Around this time, the Chinese community in the UK was also being further investigated (CILT 1981; Chann 1984; CILT 1986; Ghuman and Wong 1989). These studies paid attention to aspects of different community groups, and in particular, focused on the language needs of Chinese children “several of these studies make explicit reference to Chinese community schools” (Wu 2006, p.63).

Wu's (2006) study considered the issue of "language choice" as a means of considering the "culture of learning" in British complementary schools. The researcher carried out his research in the school where he had taught in the North West of England, the Greater London area and the Midlands. The researcher sent questionnaires to teachers in 95 Chinese community schools with each school receiving 2 questionnaires; the total number of responses was 63 from the 52 participating schools. He also gained data by observing classes and interviewing teachers who agreed to be interviewed. In Wu's report, the background of differences in people's communication styles and cultural expectations between English and Chinese were introduced at the beginning. For example, traditionally, Chinese children cannot call elders by their name directly. Even today, if someone calls an elder by his name, it is deemed to show disrespect to others. Hence, Wu stated that learning various appellations towards people older or younger than the learner is a very basic and important part in Mandarin teaching and learning. The main body of Wu's report found that teachers' teaching methods were profoundly influenced by their own schooling and social experiences. Wu also pointed out that the relationships between the many different stakeholders (teachers, students, parents and other community members) affect the learning more than teaching materials in Mandarin education. As Wu stated, "the cultures of learning in British Chinese schools were the result of negotiation of all those who took part directly (teachers and students) and indirectly (other members of the Chinese community) in the schools. The schools brought together the different socio-cultural histories of participants and allowed for

renegotiation within the context of Chinese community language schools.” (2006, p.73). Although, according to Holliday (1994) Wu believed that the “culture of learning” should be more than in the classroom, it is in a wider social context. Based on his own research findings, Wu stated that “learning cultures can vary greatly as teachers/students themselves have very different personal experiences” (2006, p.73).

Wang and Higgins (2008) and Hu’s (2010) studies addressed the Chinese learning of adult learners, some of them were British higher education, with English as their native or home language. The purpose of these studies was to highlight the difficulties experienced by Chinese as a foreign language, and to explore the factors that give rise to these difficulties. Though the participants in these studies differed from those in my research most of the learners in my research came from the same language background. As a native Chinese speaker, their findings would help me to recognize what difficulties a native English speaker might face before I started my field work.

Wang and Higgins (2008) conducted a study of teachers’ and learners’ views in Mandarin teaching in 2007. Most of the teachers in this research were native Chinese speakers, two English and two Americans. Only one in 24 teachers had over 5 years teaching Chinese experience and two of them had even less than one year of teaching experience. Although, 21 of the 24 teachers had a Master’s or Bachelor’s degrees, a formal language teaching qualification (for TESL) was held by only two, while none had QTS (Qualified teacher status) which is recognized as a teaching qualification by

the English education system. They were working for different institutions or organizations, ranging from primary schools and secondary schools to independent, comprehensive and community schools, colleges and language centres. The average working hours were four per week as a part-time member of staff and 40% had more than one job. This factor was also mentioned in the CILT (2007) report. They commented that the teachers of Chinese “move around a lot – probably due to the part time and relatively insecure nature of their employment” (2007, p.12).

As for teaching materials, half of the teachers in Wang and Higgins (2008) research were dissatisfied with the current textbooks they were using. They complained that the textbooks were unsuitable for use in a British context, as the majority of them in the UK are published and printed in China and Australia. In addition, these publications were more suited to adult learners than pupils in schools. Hence, the other half of the teachers preferred to adopt their own teaching materials.

Wang and Higgins (2008) identified the fact that teachers of Mandarin Chinese did not belong to any institution, association or other organization. They lacked a net of professional support and peer communication. Some teachers’ feedback showed that they wished to forge closer relation with others teaching languages, not just Chinese teachers. The researchers also found the teachers lacked information about the PGCE in Chinese and the variety of resources and support offered by Chinese and British governments. For example, based on their own network, Wang and Higgins

mentioned an annual conference for Chinese teachers in schools and supplementary schools run by SSAT (Specialist Schools and Academies Trust) Chinese Network website and e-forum since 2004. The conference always took place in London in the summer time. However, those teachers who had heard about this conference found it difficult to attend as part-time teachers if nobody wished to sponsor the funding for conference fees and travel costs. Those people who worked as assistant foreign language tutors in local schools were working as English teachers in schools in China. The teaching quality of those volunteers was thus not always guaranteed. The CILT (2007) survey stated that “schools found teachers from China sometimes had unrealistic expectations of British pupils and lacked the ability to manage disruptive pupils, so that great care was needed in choosing them” (2008, p.94). Wang and Higgins’s findings stated that teachers looked for self-improvement and to enrich their understanding of British culture and customs would be the basic and important place for them to start. Song (2005) estimated that new Chinese teachers might need at least one year to familiarize themselves with the British culture, while schools complained that recruiting different teachers every year led to a lack of continuity of staff and the need for mentoring support to new staff (CILT 2007).

The adult learners’ in Wang and Higgins’ (2008) research had different educational backgrounds, with four having PhDs and five holding master’s degree. The main reason for them to learn Chinese was out of “interest”, whereas children chose it because “it was something different” (Higgins and Sheldon 2001). The other reasons

for them were various: to be able to speak to relatives (one of their family members could speak Chinese); to be able to have more options in their career life in the future, such as teaching language, or to visit China and to study there. The majority of the feedback concerning their learning experience was positive. Some participants gave suggestions for teaching and learning in the future. Considering that it would be beneficial to have more practice in writing characters and oral pronunciation practice in identifying four tones, which was difficult for them, as well as making sentences which were not limited to textbooks but widely used in people's daily life. From these findings from learners, Wang and Higgins (2008) summarized the fact that "any exposure of the Chinese language in everyday life in the UK is extremely rare, so learning Chinese tends to become a very classroom-centered experience" (2008, p.93).

Finally, Wang and Higgins (2008) indicated that at present, no masters degree is available for Chinese language learners in the UK, even within Europe. Compared with student numbers in other language degree courses, the number of students on Chinese courses remains very small. The researchers suggest that running PGCE Chinese teacher training in more places would provide more qualified learning chances to adult learners and improve the teaching quality.

In contrast to Wang and Higgins' (2008) study, Hu (2010) aimed to identify difficulties by analyzing factors relating to the learning Chinese as a foreign language in universities. His survey regarding the definition of learning styles was based on

Vincent and Ross's (2001) three styles: visual learner – simply looking at the language itself such as memorizing words' spelling; auditory learner – learning language by listening to it e.g. talking with others; and kinesthetic learner – involving the language's physical movement, e.g. gestures. Hu grouped the participants in his research into different learning styles, finding that more than half of the participants were visual learners. He assumed that “learners with different learning styles would find different aspects of learning Chinese difficult” (Hu 2010, p.108) and later the findings confused this hypothesis. He employed factor analysis to establish 6 groups according to learners' difficulties in learning language: these were language skills, namely Grammar, Aural Reception, Words, Pronunciation, Oral Production and Recall. As learners at different levels have a variety of difficulties in their language learning, they figured out which features in 6 would be the shared difficulties for participants, and Grammar became the highest ranked option. In addition to Grammar, Words, Pronunciation and Recall were the most common areas of difficulty at the middle level, while they had greater confidence in Aural Reception and Oral Production. These difficulties reduced when they reached higher levels. The findings also indicated that Pronunciation was assessed as the most difficult factor in Chinese learning, as it used to be the first section when introduced to beginners. Hu believed that considering learners' learning style would play an important role for teachers in their teaching to help them to be aware of students' difficulties.

Wang (2009) and Higgins and Sheldon (2001) undertook their research in state

secondary schools. However, the participants and purposes of their researches were different. Wang was a teacher of Mandarin Chinese in the MFL department and conducted his research at a girl's school in the centre of London and a mixed secondary school. His study explored secondary pupils' perceptions as to why they chose Mandarin, whilst also examining the main obstacle to learning and learners' suggestions to their teachers. The important finding in Wang's study was Mandarin Chinese teachers played a very important role in Mandarin Chinese teaching and learning. Teachers' attitudes towards teaching and their teaching styles affected pupils' enthusiasm in learning Chinese. Higgins and Sheldon collected data from 54 current Year 3 pupils enrolled in either Chinese or in French in Bishop Heber High school. Their research purposes were to "investigate the sensation seeking tendencies and academic achievement responsibility of children studying French or Chinese in an attempt to explain how children choose school subjects" (Higgins and Sheldon 2001, p.124). The findings found the students who chose Chinese had higher scores than those who chose French. Then they defined that "occupational aspiration and expectation and a desire to gain friendship and knowledge" mentioned by Kruidenier & Clément (1986, cited in Higgins and Sheldon 2001) were not the only elements to motivate pupils to choose a language, their personality was also influential when they were making a choice. Higgins & Sheldon also mentioned proper teaching methods also affected pupils' choices.

These previous studies reflect similar issues within teaching and learning Mandarin

Chinese. The main problems include a shortage of resources, lack of qualified staff and continuity in teaching, inadequate classroom management and facilities, teaching aids and absence of a standard syllabus. These issues strongly influence the teaching and learning of Mandarin Chinese. The next two sections discuss the literature of motivation in general MFL teaching and learning, as well as the specific motivation for learning language in the British context.

2.4 Literature review of motivation in MFL teaching and learning

Research in learners' motivation for learning Mandarin is somewhat sparse. These researchers' work discusses learners' motivation for the general foreign language learning context, or more specifically in foreign language learning, such as French or Spanish.

Studies of non-European languages such as Chinese and Japanese are especially relevant as Western learners are likely to have a different learning experience in learning Asian languages. Oxford et al (1993) investigated the possible factors that influence language achievement in Japanese with 107 high school students learning Japanese through television. The results of this study indicated that characteristics such as motivation, gender and learning strategies do make a difference, however, "motivation was the most important predictor (of learning a second or foreign

language) in this study” (Soon 2002, p.86). The achievement of personal goals, for example, a career, is a key element in motivating learners’ language learning motivation. In addition, positive feedback, diplomatic correction of errors and a relaxed learning environment can also increase learners’ desire to learn.

Nowadays, Japanese is another Asian language which is popular and introduced to local schools in England. As Peräkylä suggests “the comparative approach directly tackles the question of generalisability by demonstrating the similarities and differences across a number of settings” (2004, p.296). In this sense, establishing the factors in introducing, teaching and learning Japanese samples will provide us with information about relevant aspects of events such as staffing and textbooks and will allow us to relate cases in this study to what teachers and pupils’ need in arousing their motivation and enthusiasm in Mandarin teaching and learning as a foreign language.

Motivation for learning a foreign language has been studied extensively. Gardner and Lambert (1959) have provided some early studies of motivation; in their study concerning the relationship between attitude/motivation and the achievement of a language learner, they suggest two types of motivation: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation refers to placing L2 learners into the L2 community; for example, to contact, communicate or assimilate with friends in the target language country, traveling there, even living there, and adopting the culture. Instrumental motivation pays greater attention to individual learner’s achievement or their practical

goals (Gardner, 1985). Gardner and Lambert's work was widely accepted and extended by a number of researchers and many subsequent studies confirmed the validity of Gardner and his colleagues' studies (Svanes, 1987). However, their motivation construct did not remain unchallenged. In the early 1990s, some writers' (Dörnyei 1994b and Soon 2002, p.1) marked shift of interest in L2 motivation appeared in some papers. The researchers aimed to explore various directions in social psychological construct and develop Gardner and his associates' work (Dörnyei 1994a, Dörnyei 1994b and Soon 2002, p.3).

While recognizing the importance of the social-educational model explored by Gardner and his associates, Dörnyei's work aimed to explore and develop L2 motivation research from an education centred perspective:

“While acknowledging unanimously the fundamental importance of the Gardnerian social-educational model, researchers were also calling for a more pragmatic, education-centred approach to motivation research, which would be consistent with the perceptions of practising teachers and which also would be in line with the current results of mainstream educational psychological research”. (Dörnyei 1994a, p.273).

Dörnyei offers a framework based on Gardner's social-educational model, and develops it into a new framework by describing and integrating motivation

components in a multilevel L2 motivation construct. There are three parts to the framework; the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level.

The language level describes Gardner's integrative and instrumental motivation. It relates to motivational factors such as social cultural components and learners' understanding of the target language community. Second, the learner level focuses on learners' personal traits. There are two motivational components identified in this level: learners' needs for achievement and self-confidence. They also encompass other factors such as anxiety, perceived target language competence, past experiences, self-esteem, setting attainable sub-goals, etc (Chambers 2001, p.8). Third, the learning situation level is made up of Freud's intrinsic and extrinsic motives, which include three aspects concerned with motivational conditions: a) "course-specific motivation components" relate to the factors of the syllabus, teaching materials, teaching methods, learning tasks; b) "teachers-specific motivational components" mention teachers' personality, teaching style, teacher-students' relationships, communication between teachers and students, learners' perceptions; and finally, c) "group-specific motivation components" which concern "dynamics of the learning group" (Dörnyei 1994, p.277), for instance shared goals, co-operation between group members. The above literature about language learners' motivation will help and guide the researcher to investigate the answers to the research question, which is to ascertain how and why pupils in a sample of secondary schools prefer to learn Mandarin Chinese as a new language in an English context.

2.5 Motivation for learning language in the UK

The special status of English as the leading international language for business, internet, academic and tourism, has led to the fact that people in the UK appear to have a lower European identity than other countries in the European Union (Macaro 2008; Ofsted 2008). This has been cited as one of the most important reasons for Britons having less motivation for learning foreign language than people in other countries (ibid).

In the 1970s, instrumental and integrative motivation were two key elements in the research about motivation in the British modern languages classroom (Burstall, Jamieson et al. 1974; Green 1975; Burstall 1978). Burstall *et al* (1974) and Green (1975) identified that family social backgrounds affected learners' motivation and attitudes towards language learning, for example, learning a foreign language seemed to be a channel for middle class families to expand their social network and they had more motivation to learn foreign languages. However, research at this stage “found no clear evidence of the contribution of learners' initial attitudes to their eventual proficiency” (Coleman, Galaczi et al. 2007, p.253).

In the 1980s, Littlewood (1984) found that learners' classroom experiences led to their success or failure in language learning – “enjoyment, stimulation through variety, and

above all, the experience of success” (1984, p.56). Equally, Powell’s (1986) study identified pupils’ initial enthusiasm for language learning in Britain. According to Mitchell’s (2003) review of pupils in the 11-16 national curriculum for modern foreign languages in the 1990s “any MFL curriculum in the special UK setting faces real challenges in convincing learners of the value of sustained MFL study” (Mitchell 2003, p.21). Mitchell was not the only one who summed up MFL teaching and learning in that way during that period (Clark and Trafford 1996; Lee, Buckland et al. 1996; Chambers 1999; Graham 2002). The shared findings from these researchers show that pupils had lower expectations of learning language for their future career and international contact and language became an unfavorable subject for school pupils. These studies also found that from a pupils’ point of view, languages had boring, mundane lesson content instead of being enjoyable and interesting. Coleman *et al* (2007) have summed up pupils’ views thus: “they generally had difficulty in perceiving and articulating their own progression” (p.8). In spite of pupils’ negative viewpoints, the researchers agreed that classroom activities became more varied (Clark and Trafford 1996; Lee, Buckland et al. 1996; Chambers 1999; Graham 2002; Coleman, Galaczi et al. 2007) .

Some recent studies’ findings have reflected the fact that many pupils do not consider learning foreign languages as being related to their lifestyle and career. Indeed, modern foreign languages are sometimes perceived as being difficult, boring and less enjoyable than other subjects in school (Harland, Moor et al. 2002; Blenkinsop,

McCrone et al. 2006). Coleman *et al* (2007) have shown that pupils in Specialist Language Colleges have the highest motivation for learning foreign languages. Schools deciding to pilot-test the new Language Ladder Strategies may have less motivation, but nonetheless, these pupils' motivation is may be higher than in other schools. An interesting element is worth mentioning here; DfES (2006) had stated that in 2006, English as an additional language was used by nearly 12.5% of primary students and 9.5% of secondary students , a number which continues to rise.

2.6 Effective teaching and learning

In order to engage with the research question of how language is taught, as well as to improve the understanding and analysis of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in practice, this study also refers to the relevant literature on foreign language teaching and learning. This section, firstly, discusses the communicative language teaching approach, as it is widely mentioned and adopted both in the UK and China in second and foreign language teaching (refers to 2.6.1); and secondly the literature relating to teachers' teaching and learning goals (refers to 2.6.2).

2.6.1 Communicative language teaching

A large body of research into modern foreign language teaching methods has indicated the importance of communicative language teaching approach, which “has

been acknowledged most widely over the past two decades” and the discussion on how it has been interpreted and understood in the UK has been highly focused (Mitchell 1994; Pachler, Barnes et al. 2009). Communicative language teaching has been widely known and introduced in China since 1979 (Li 1984) and teachers of Mandarin Chinese are likely to be educated or trained in communicative language teaching approaches which may affect their teaching in Mandarin Chinese classes. In order to answer the research question about how they teach and learn Mandarin Chinese, the literature relating to the communicative language teaching approach needs to be further considered.

The concept of communicative competence was originally developed as an innovation in language teaching in the U.S.A, in the 1970s, by the sociolinguist Hymes, and was further developed in the early 1980s by Canale and Swain (1980). According to Canale (1983), communicative competence refers to “the underlying systems of knowledge and skill required for communication” (p.5). He argues that communicative competence consists of four components, namely grammatical competence; sociolinguistic competence; discourse competence and strategic competence. Richards and Rodgers (1986, p.66) state that “the aims of CLT are to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and to develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication”. The form that communicative approach presents can be varied rather than being restricted to group activities in

which focused on oral communication practice. It is possible to incorporate cognitive teaching of grammar which "should be taught more liberally, with greater respect of the individual" (Holliday 1994, p.167).

As a reaction to traditional language teaching approaches such as Audiolingualism, classic communicative language teaching (1970s to 1990s) focused on language ability much more than grammatical competence (Richards 2006). While grammatical competence put great emphasis on how to produce a grammatically correct sentence rather than the meaning of the language. Classic communicative language learning argued that language ability should be involved much more in language teaching and learning than grammatical competence. Richards (2006) indicated that traditional grammatical and vocabulary syllabuses and teaching methods did not include information and knowledge for language skills towards different communication purposes such as making requests, giving advice and making suggestions. The notion of communicative competence reflected on examinations and their syllabus. For example, the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) which was introduced in the mid-1980s, and two consecutive National Curriculum documents which was published in the 1990s "emphasised communication in a narrowly defined number of topics with clearly specified linguistic items/phrases, functions and structures at the expense of accuracy" (Pachler, Barnes et al. 2009, p.158). In this sense, at that time foreign language teaching and learning put more emphasis on

language appropriate for various communication purposes than on grammatical competence.

In recent years, “grammar has seen something of a renaissance” (Pachler, Barnes et al. 2009, p.158). The large amount of attention that was given to focus on meaning and language abilities in communicative purposes has led in some cases to the impression of CLT that it advocates meaning and message and do disregard grammatical structure. According to why grammar is important Savignon (2002) indicated that “learners seem to focus best on grammar when it relates to their communicative needs and experiences”. Pachler et al (2009) argued that grammar competence should not be seen as separate entities of communicative competence “pupils need a grammatical base in order to be of others” (p.159). Pachler et al (2009) also argued that “to teach learners certain grammatical features as set phrases can be legitimate in so far as it can stand pupils in good stead” (p.160). It is particularly work when pupils prepare for their public examinations. For example, the GCSE consultation Criteria (QCA 2007) required candidates “for each of AO2 (speaking) and AO4 (writing), at least 10% of the total marks for the subject must be allocated to knowledge and accurate application of the grammar and structures of the language prescribed in the specification” (cited in Pachler 2009, p.158). This research focuses on Mandarin Chinese’s teaching and learning in schools in the English context, in addition, in traditional Chinese teaching methods, grammar-translation method had been promoted in foreign language classes for many decades. As the teachers of Mandarin

Chinese might be from which means they might be educated in Chinese education system. It is worth to “reconcile the Grammar-translation Method with CLT to promote strategies that lead to a greater emphasis on communication” (Rao 2006, p.505).

Sociolinguistic competence which was mentioned by Canale (1983) was later broadened by Savignon (2002) into the notion of socio-cultural competence. Pachler et al (2009) identified that “the ability to understand the cultural context of foreign language use is a key aspect of effective communication in the target language” (p.181). According to language learners who enter into a new language and culture, lack of information and knowledge regarding different cultures. Social-cultural competence refers to interpret the target social context. It broadens learners mind, knowledge and sensitiveness. Pachler et al (2009) further argued that cultural awareness is not only limited by understanding target language and its culture, especially since foreign language learners familiar with new language and its culture. Socio-cultural competence then aimed to “enable pupils to identify with, recognise and draw comparisons between the cultures of their own country and the countries where the target language is spoken” (p.181).

The foreign language assistant was treated as a cultural resource (Pachler 2009), because they “can present a very valuable opportunity to enhance MFL work across all stage of cultural awareness” (p.199). As it was presented in Table 2.1, every year

there were around 100 Chinese language assistants teaching abroad for one year. Working and learning with language assistants provided a direct link for both teachers and pupils in English context access and understand the Chinese language the Chinese culture.

Byram (2002) extends Canale's definition of communicative competence to include intercultural communicative competence. He argues that communicative competence also can be interpreted from an intercultural perspective which focuses on the relation between language and culture. Moreover, Cortazzi and Jin (1999) identified intercultural communicative competence as a fifth aspect of communicative competence which hereafter referred to as ICC. According to Byram, ICC encourages learners employing the target language as the primary communication code when they participate in a variety of activities. It contains the connotations of both socio-cultural competence and strategic competence of communicative competence, whilst broadened the scope of "social context" to recognise the hybridity of source and target cultures. Today, CLT has been widely adopted in language teaching in both Chinese and British classrooms, creating a parallel between the two cultures in pedagogical methods.

Discourse competence emphasises the learner's ability to use the target language in spoken and written discourse. Savignon (2002) identified two kinds of processing in discourse competence – "bottom-up" and "top-down". "Bottom-up" process requests

learners a 100% understanding of the text with identification of certain words; and “top-down” process requests learners’ identification of certain words based on their understanding of the theme and purposes of the text. Discourse competence refers to the learners can combine grammatical forms and meanings in their writing and speaking.

The last component in the model is strategic competence. It refers to the ability of employing target language to cope variety communication situations, and also keep the communication channel open (Alptekin 2002). Strategic competence requests people use “both verbal forms and non-verbal communication to compensate for lack of knowledge in the other three components” (Dahmardeh 2009). It is interesting to explore whether the teachers and pupils can find ways to compensate for areas of weakness in Mandarin Chinese teaching, if so, the Chinese teaching and learning has communicative efficacy.

Recent critiques of CLT indicated some shifts which are taking place and will eventually change language teaching practice radically. Bax’s (2003) article “The end of CLT: a Context Approach to language teaching” argued that CLT is no longer the central paradigm in language teaching. However, Harmer(2003) did not show agreement with Bax. Harmer (2003) believed that in teacher’s teaching, methodology is at the heart of professional. He pointed out that “more fundamentally I have a problem with the idea that the learning context is necessarily the first place to start in

any educational exchange” (p.288). Harmer further criticised Bax’s (2003) work by arguing that,

“If, as Alastair Pennycook suggests, we ‘need to see English language teaching as located in the domain of popular culture as much as in the domain of applied linguistics’ (Pennycook 1998, p.162), then Stephen Bax’s article would seem to be a timely reminder that the social context in which learning takes place is of vital importance to the success of the educational endeavour. Nor would he find many, nowadays, who would argue that an insensitive insistence on a rigid methodology at the expense of classroom and learner realities was a course worth pursuing.” Harmer (2003, p.288)

The issues of authentic materials in language teaching has been described and discussed by many researchers (Richards 2001; Crawford 2002; Martinez 2002; Richards 2006). Richards claimed that:

- “Created materials can also be motivating for learners. Published materials are often designed to look like teenage magazines and other kinds of real world materials and may be just as interesting and motivating for learners.
- Authentic materials often contain difficult language and unneeded vocabulary items, which can be an unnecessary distraction for teachers and learners. Since they have not been simplified or written to any lexical or linguistic guidelines,

they often contain language that may be beyond the learners' abilities.

- Created materials may be superior to authentic materials because they are generally built around a graded syllabus and hence provide a systematic coverage of teaching items.
- Using authentic materials is a burden for teachers. In order to develop learning resources around authentic materials, teachers have to be prepared to spend a considerable amount of time locating suitable sources for materials and developing activities and exercises to accompany the materials.” (Richards, 2001, p.253)

Regarding to the use of authentic materials Crawford (2002) argued that “it is very difficult to find such materials which scaffold the learning process by remaining within manageable fields. It is also difficult for teachers legally to obtain a sufficient range of audio-visual materials of an appropriate quality and length” (p.85). Martinez (2002) concurs with above findings, furthermore, he highlighted that authentic materials may be “too culturally biased”. As different languages relay on different cultural structures, Martinez then argued that many structured mixed in language teaching process, which due to “lower levels have a hard time decoding the texts”(p.120).

It has been widely accepted that learner-centeredness is a distinctive feature of CLT (Richards and Rodgers 2001), as CLT inclined to “put a particular priority on learners and their communicative needs” (Xue 2009, p.27). Savignon (2002) argued that “the essence of CLT is the engagement of learners in communication to allow them to develop their communicative competence” (p.22). He also argued that “learner communicative needs provide a framework for elaborating program goals in terms of functional competence” (Savignon 2002, p.3). However, some researchers (Holliday 1994; Savignon 2002) questioned the differences between the definitions of “learning-centeredness” and “learner-centeredness”. In their view, CLT ought to be “learning-centered” rather than “learner-centered”. Holliday (1994) challenged the term of “learner-centered” which only emphasis the image of learners, and neglected teachers’ role in the learning process. O’Neill (1991) also emphasized the key role of teachers in the language learning process. He claimed that in language learning, it is not enough for learners learning with their own, and teachers only intervening when learners needed. According to O’Neill’s (1991) finding, many students feel more comfortable when they worked with teachers.

In CLT, the teacher serves as more of a facilitator, allowing students to be in charge of their own learning and this is known as a learner-centred classroom. According to Larsen-Freeman (1986), the teacher plays a less dominant role, with learners being persuaded to shoulder a greater level of responsibility for their own learning. Teachers are still required to set up exercises and give directions to the class, however, they

carry out more communicative classroom activities and students are engaged in considerably more speaking activities and communicating than would be the case in a traditional classroom, which allows them to learn more actively for themselves and to see how language works as “a formal system” (Beale 2002).

2.6.2 The use of target language

The issue of target language use has been described and explored extensively in the last decades (Franklin 1990; Dickson 1992; Dickson 1996; Macaro 1997; Buckby 1999; Meiring and Norman 2002; Pachler, Barnes et al. 2009). Discussions regarding the status of target language can be traced back to the Direct Method (Meiring and Norman 2002). In the various versions of the National Curriculum in England, it was expected to be used as the normal means of communication (DES/WO 1990; Ofsted 2004) in foreign language classes; indeed as was stated in sub section 10.7 in the National Curriculum, “the natural use of the target language for virtually all communication is a sure sign of a good modern language course”(DES/WO 1990, p.58). However, Meiring and Norman (2002) have pointed out that the idea of “normal means of communication in the classroom” is limited. They consider that the practical communication would not be limited by a “clear defined environment” such as in class, it should widely work under any situation. The use of target language relates to two concepts: on the one hand, it concerns the target language use by teachers, and has been seen as a basic routine during the instruction procedures; on the

other hand, it relates to target language use by pupils, such as when they adopt it with teachers and peers (Pachler, Barnes et al. 2009).

Regarding the teacher's use of target language, Franklin (1990) highlighted two considerations: "namely the behavior of pupils in the classroom" which is especially useful at the very beginning of using target language and she also admitted that it would be affected by the class procedure or teaching goals. The other consideration she mentions are "teachers' own confidence in the use of the target language" (cited in Meiring and Norman 2002, p.33). Teachers' confidence in using target language is founded upon teachers' linguistic knowledge, such as vocabulary and phrase skills. It depends on teachers' classroom and teaching materials' management abilities. It also concerns continuing professional development and maintenance and progression of language skills (Meiring and Norman 2002). Moreover, teachers should keep in practice and use the target language everyday to decrease the limitation in basic transactions with pupils. Krashen and Terrell (1988), meanwhile, have stressed the notion of "comprehensible input" and "natural approach". They have indicated that it is dangerous if the teacher treats the process of learning as a formal activity and a fixed subject of study and analysis rather than setting up a relaxed friendly relationship with learners. However, Macaro (2000) argues from a different angle that "it would be unwise to recommend the total exclusion of the L1 from the foreign language classroom" (p.177). He states that teachers use L1 in building their personal relationship with pupils, managing pupils' behavior and lesson procedures, teaching

grammar and giving out important information such as homework or text instructions (Macaro 1997). The use of the target language will be adopted in classroom interaction and he emphasizes promoting the target language in teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction.

In terms of reactions to teacher use of target language, learners' attitudes and opinions about target language use is mixed (Macaro 1997; Stables and Wikeley 1999; Macaro 2000). Macaro's (1997) study shows that pupils in the same class, being taught by the same teacher reacted very differently to teachers' use of the target language, as some learners were comfortable with it and had very strong reaction to teachers whereas others did not. He indicated that the differences in pupils' reactions did not result from different teaching styles, but variations between learners. He also argued that even for pupils who had strong reactions, it still does not mean that "they have understood or are satisfied with it (use of the target language)" (Macaro 2000, p.181). Stables and Wikeley (1999) have pointed out that a "lack of comprehension and dissatisfaction may well be among the factors which lead to demotivation"(cited in Macaro 2000, p.181). Their study found that these pupils had negative attitudes towards foreign language learning occurring in the target language predominates in the language classrooms, and thus, that there is a need to change the situation relating to the use of the target language. Mitchell's (1994) notion of effective teaching is that it is as an active process which needs to increase learners' awareness of taking responsibility for their own learning progress. Meiring and Norman (2002), meanwhile, suggest that

learners use textbooks and other learning materials as the sample of pre-communicative tasks and adopt basic repetition drills to practice knowledge in target language. They mention that suitable body language will help learners to remember new language items and present themselves by using the target language. They further encourage pupils to employ what they have learnt for general communicative needs in class and display knowledge, cultural and other information relating to the target language. This view is echoed by James *et al* (1999), who states that “a stimulating classroom environment and a real audience can have a marked impact on the motivation to speak” (p.2).

Macaro (2000) has indicated some further factors which affect interaction in the foreign language classroom. The first of these is the length of the lesson. He defines a long lesson as more than 50 minutes and a short lesson as approximately 35 minutes. Although he emphasizes that his findings are limited by the sample, this still shows that teachers in long lessons engaged in more teacher-centered activities than is the case in short lessons. In other words, pupils in the long lessons had less chance to use the target language to engage in interaction with teachers and peers. However, later, he reinforces the fact that when teachers add more pair work or group work in long length classes, surprisingly, the used of target language increases by both teachers and pupils. Secondly, he points out where the teacher uses the target language, the pupils are also likely to do so. With the switch to their first language in discourse, pupils will feel free to use first language to express themselves. In this study too, it is necessary

to observe teacher- pupil interaction in classes and their use of target language, as this will help the researcher to analyze the current situation of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese as a second language in practice.

2.6.3 The importance of having qualified teachers

Teacher quality is of considerable importance (Rowe 2003; Goldhaber and Anthony 2007). Indeed, staffing is of prime concern in schools which are teaching and wish to introduce Mandarin Chinese. Having stable staffing is, indeed, a necessity for all schools.

Although the National Curriculum for Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) was first implemented in September 1992, this did not include Mandarin Chinese as a MFL. One reason for Mandarin not being implemented as a MFL was perhaps due to the challenge of teacher recruitment in this area. “The biggest problem for us is staffing” says Janet Lageveen, head of modern languages in a school (Times Online, 2007b). Staffing is the main reason why they have not been able to offer Chinese to every year group. CILT’s report about Mandarin language learning (2007) also highlighted this very serious factor. It said that less than half of schools teaching Mandarin have a partner school in China and there is also an annual exchange of teachers. According to the report, only 31% of schools had a Mandarin teacher with Qualified Teacher Status, for example, some schools are looking for Mandarin native speakers to be their

teachers and Chinese students in local universities become their priority choice. However, although these students are studying in higher education, they are not trained language teachers. The report also notes that under a quarter had a British Council Chinese Foreign Language Assistant. These British Council qualified teaching assistants are volunteers from China who are Chinese citizens and speak standard Chinese but are under the age of 65 and have at least a junior college degree in subjects such as Chinese, history, philosophy, foreign languages, physics, law or sociology (China Daily, 2004). These assistants are employed by the British Council and HSBC and a new group arrives every year with different members. It is hard to guarantee the quality of teachers' teaching methods and the continuity of the teaching program under these circumstances.

2.6.3.1 Lack of continuity in Mandarin teaching

From the above analysis, we may see that the lack of qualified teacher status is an inhibiting factor in introducing and developing Mandarin Chinese. Even for schools which have a language teaching assistant, they still find that “we would like to offer some accreditation but this would need a permanent teacher rather than a FLA (foreign language assistant)” (CILT 2007, p.12). This is because despite having a qualified Chinese native teaching assistant it is considered to be better than having a Chinese student; they need cultural acclimatization and strong mentor support, as most of them can only stay in England for one year and the skills to become familiar

with systems such as discipline and target setting in England. Furthermore, “the nature of language teaching in Britain means you need skilled language teachers who can cope with the negativity” (CILT 2007, p.12). Chinese students are much more docile than students in England, therefore; Chinese teachers need the ability to manage the classroom effectively or else students may become disruptive. Today, some schools even travel to China and select Mandarin teachers personally (CILT 2007, p.12), in order to avoid a lack of continuity in Mandarin teaching and to guarantee teachers’ quality.

2.6.4 Literature on teachers’ teaching and learning goals

This research is associated with how teachers teach and how pupils learn in Mandarin Chinese in a sample of English schools within an English context. A review of the literature relating to learning goals and teaching practice is therefore essential.

In numerous research studies on teaching and learning goals, researchers indicated that teachers’ teaching and learning goals relate to a set of elements, including action design in classes (Leontiev 1981; Wells 1996), teachers’ instructional behaviors (Olson 1981), teachers’ perceptions of the culture of the school (Buck, Lee et al. 1992) and various exams and tests (Frederiksen 1984).

According to Wells (1996), teachers’ instructions may be categorized according to two processes: a pre-established type and an unplanned or spontaneous type. The pre-

established type always matches the Curriculum units' requirements and teachers then design various activities to realize the curriculum outcomes. Conversely, the unplanned, known as spontaneous teaching and learning goals usually appears through teachers' practice, which as Chang (2009) mentioned, is via "negotiation, during class activities such as peer work or group work in which students execute instructional tasks established by teachers" (p.53).

Buck et al (1992) have pointed out that teachers' perceptions towards school's culture also influence teachers' instructional practice. The so-called "school culture" here can refer to teachers' awareness of their dominant values, as well as beliefs and goals within school. According to Buck et al. (1992) teachers can feel their values when they are involved in schools' regulations, policies and their teaching and living experience in school. While working with various schools' standard tests, which are rooted in schools' policies, teachers may easily start to "teach to the test" because standardized tests are used as a way of measuring the proficiency of both teachers and pupils, teachers' teaching and learning goals become more focused on instructing pupils to perform to the best of their ability in tests (Frederiksen 1984).

Leontiev's (1981) work has identified the fact that although teachers' teaching and learning goals are affected by different kinds of factors, teachers still have the right to modify their goals in terms of their instructional practice. Guided by the teachers' goals, they can give meaning to classroom practice. Olson (1981) has argued that by

modifying classroom instructions, teachers aim to convey their teaching and learning goals to pupil through their instructional behaviour. Elliot (1991) concurs with this finding that goal-directed teachers are used to connecting teaching and learning goals and classroom instructions, hence, Leontiev has also remarked that “classroom events are best understood as (goal-directed) actions” (1981, p.76).

2.7 Conclusion

Due to the research in teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in England being scant in nature, this chapter began with a discussion of the literature on teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language in a sample of English speaking countries. It then reviewed and synthesized the social, economic and cultural backgrounds to teaching and learning MFL, particularly in Mandarin Chinese within an English context. These factors were, or are still affecting the development of Mandarin Chinese education in England. The literature on motivation and affective teaching and learning suggests that learners’ motivation is a key element in the teaching and learning of foreign languages, including Mandarin Chinese. Teachers’ teaching methods, class design and teaching goals all affect the interaction models and activities which also designate the learners’ role (such as listener or interactor) in class.

The next chapter will present the research design and methodology used in this study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

The literature review in the previous chapter discussed the social, cultural and economic background literature of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language generally, and then specifically focused on the teaching and learning of Mandarin Chinese in the English educational context. It presented a theoretical framework of the important issues within teaching and learning MFL and pupils' motivations in language learning. According to Bodgan and Taylor's (1975) definition of "research design", the entire process of this research includes: writing a research question based on conceptualising problems; choosing research methods; collecting data; data analysis; interpretation and writing reports. Some researchers (Yin 2003; Creswell 2007) have suggested that a researcher's understanding of broad philosophical and theoretical perspectives will enhance the quality and validity of a research design. During the learning process, knowledge and skills were assessed to identify the limitations and potential problems of the research design and data analysis. Furthermore, it is argued (Yin 2003; Creswell 2007) that a researcher's personal research experience would also reflect on research design and the representation of their work.

In this chapter, section 3.1 re-addresses the research questions, as they are the key elements in organising data (Cohen, Manion et al. 2007). Section 3.2 considers the

rationale for adopting a mixed method design within the research methodology. Section 3.3 outlines the research design and includes the selection of samples, data collection instruments and procedures used. Section 3.4 focuses on data analysis and section 3.5 details issues of validity and reliability. Finally, section 3.6 addresses the ethical issues considered in the research.

3.1 Addressing the research questions

Research questions are key in the research process. The research design must match the purpose of the research questions as well as the research area; all relevant data from various data collection tools such as interview, questionnaire and observation are drawn together in order to answer the research questions (Cohen, Manion et al. 2007; Cohen, Manion et al. 2010). It is necessary to re-address the research questions of the current study in this part of the chapter to identify the general research objectives. The research described in this thesis attempted to investigate the main research question, which was broken down into three sub-questions as follows:

1. What are the reasons for introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language in a sample of schools in a English educational context?
2. What are the teaching methods used and what are the teachers' goals in Mandarin Chinese teaching?
3. What are pupils' views about teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese?

There are several reasons for deciding to focus on the above questions. Firstly, in the

global economy, according to market needs of learning language, Mandarin Chinese is becoming increasingly important in MFL departments in some schools in England. It has been realized that more and more schools started offering Mandarin Chinese in secondary schools either as a part of their curriculum or as an enrichment course. It is interesting to speculate on schools' motivation to introduce Mandarin Chinese. Secondly, CILT's (2007) report highlighted that most teachers of Mandarin in the UK were native Chinese speakers. As a Chinese citizen who has lived and studied in the United Kingdom for a number of years, the researcher became interested in distinguishing differences between the curriculum and teaching methods she experienced as a child in China and how pupils are taught in English schools. Regarding the literature that has been touched upon in the last chapter, it is necessary to focus on teachers' teaching goals, methods and materials they employed routinely in their teaching and investigate the challenges teachers' meet when teaching in a different setting. Thirdly, this research not only focuses on pedagogy, but it considers teachers' and pupils' perceptions on teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese. Feedback from teachers and pupils provides evidence of the current situation of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in England. It will also encourage and improve the development of teaching and learning of Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language in schools in England and that is what this study aims to establish.

3.2 The pragmatism stance and mixed methods design

In the social sciences, ontological assumptions, epistemological assumptions, methodological considerations and those which concern human nature influence social research (Cohen, Manion et al. 2007; Bryman 2008). Hitchcock and Hughes (1995 cited in Cohen et al., 2000; p.1) indicated that in research, ontological assumptions, epistemological assumptions, methodological considerations and those which concern human nature are mutually interactive with each other. Kaplan (1973) identifies the aim of methodology, namely “to describe and analyse methods, throwing light on their limitations and resources, clarifying their suppositions and consequences, relating their potentialities to the twilight zone at the frontiers of knowledge” (cited in Wellington 1996, p.16). Some researchers such as Gray (Gray 2004) echoed Kaplan; Gray noticed that the research methodology would influence people’s chosen data collection methods and further argued that the research methodology is also influenced by researchers’ theoretical perspectives as well as their epistemological stance. However, Blaikie (2000, cited in Wu 2010) offers an alternative argument; he stated that “methodology refers to discussions of how research is done, or should be done, and to the critical analysis of methods of research” (Wu 2010, p.114). This refers to how new knowledge would be identified and justified logically.

Pragmatism is the philosophical partner for mixed methods research. It is also referred to as worldviews (Creswell 2007). The key concern of pragmatism are “what

works” (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003; Creswell and Clark 2011) or “does it work” (Daniel Muijs 2004) to solve problem based problems rather than how the methods work (Patton 2002). According to Dorty (1990), pragmatism is an inquiry paradigm and claims to have no commitment to any system of philosophy or reality. As a practical approach, pragmatism takes account of people’s experiences or practical experiment rather than the theory behind them (Murphy 1990). Robson (2002) defined pragmatism as:

“use whatever philosophical or methodological approach that works best for a particular research problem or issue. This leads to mixed-methods studies where both quantitative and qualitative approaches are adopted” (p.43).

Creswell (2007) proposed pragmatic research as: 1) adopting multiple research methods for data collection in order to answer the research questions; 2) collecting and analysing both qualitative and quantitative data which are not terms referring to research methods; 3) calling for the practical implication of the research; 4) focusing on employing appropriate research instruments to gain raw materials, after processing data, the meaningful information known as knowledge is achieved to address the research questions.

A mixed methods approach was employed in this research in order to investigate answers and objectives of the research questions. Literature suggests that in the past

20 years, following the development of quantitative and qualitative research, mixed methods has been called a “third methodological movement” (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003; Creswell and Clark 2011). Greene (2007) referred to it as “multiple ways of seeing and hearing”. The mixed methods approach is defined as “a type of research design in which QUAL [qualitative] and QUAN [quantitative] approaches are used in types of questions, research methods, data collection and analysis procedures, and/or inferences” (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003, p.711). It helps researchers to achieve broader and often better results (Fontana and Frey 2003). The strength of mixed methods designs is that they allow researchers to use more than one method within a research programme in order to obtain a more complete assessment of human behaviour and experience (Morse 2003).

Axinn and Pearce (2006) reveal two themes in mixed method data collection strategies; firstly, “mixing multiple methods affords opportunities to use the strengths of some methods to counterbalance the weakness of other methods” and secondly, “mixing multiple methods is a valuable strategy for producing a comprehensive empirical record about a topic” (, p.2) They stress varying data collection approaches can reduce on-sampling errors, discovering new hypotheses, and test hypotheses. Bergman echoes this, arguing that the rationale for mixed methods research is “by supposedly exploiting the strengths of each paradigm and by combining the respective strengths within one single research design”(2008, p.14).

This research project aims to explore the reasons for schools introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language in an English educational context; to investigate how teachers teach; how pupils learn in practice and how teachers' and pupils' perceive their experience. Based on Newby's (2010) theory "research issues in education are often so complex that the insights of both approaches are required if we are to gain a good understanding" (p.128), therefore the current research adopts both qualitative and quantitative components. Accordingly, it entails a quantitative component comprising a survey with pupils from the Mandarin classes which were observed. The questionnaire provided a holistic picture of pupils' feedback of their learning experience of the Mandarin Chinese course, and their attitudes towards teachers' teaching and their own overall perspectives. In addition, qualitative components were used, for example semi-structured interviews with Head Teachers, heads of MFL departments, and teachers of Mandarin Chinese. Classroom observations were also employed in the data collection process. Significantly, multiple sources of data collection were adopted.

Bergman (2008) and Creswell & Clark (2011) highlight some characteristics of the mixed methods approach which also relevant to this research. Firstly, they argued that the mixed methods approach should have a natural setting. In this study, the data was collected when participants were engaged in Mandarin Chinese teaching and learning. Secondly, in this research, 2 schools were visited in the preliminary study, and 5 schools were visited in the main study. In the main study, 2 Head Teachers, 5 heads of

MFL departments and 5 teachers of Mandarin Chinese were interviewed, and 14 classes were observed for a total of 59 lessons. The pupils who completed the questionnaire (84) were pupils from the 14 classes observed. Thirdly, Creswell & Clark (2011) maintained that mixed methods research should employ multiple sources of data collection; as mentioned earlier, this research conducted both qualitative and quantitative components in data collection.

3.2.1 Examining the qualitative and quantitative approach to the current study

Education research is always grouped under the two opposite epistemological positions: positivism and interpretivism (Wellington 1996; Hughes and Sharrock 1997; Bryman 2008). Adopted from natural science, the term “positivism” has been widely accepted and used to describe quantitative research. It is also called as “positive orthodoxy” (Hughes and Sharrock 1997). Wellington (2000) indicated that the purpose of positivist research is to explore “generalization” and “hard” quantitative data. While, “interpretivism” believes in objectivism, theory testing, and qualitative research (David and Sutton 2004). According to Robson (2002), being interpretive, it is the “task of the researcher is to understand the multiple social constructions of meaning and knowledge” (p.27). It also tends to acquire multiple perspectives to view the methods of interview and observation. As in much educational research, this study combined both qualitative and quantitative approaches for data collection and analysis

(Brannen 1992). Although qualitative and quantitative approaches present different views of research inquiry in terms of the nature of the different research investigation environments and different research methods adopted to collect data and trial data collected (Brannen 1992), the employment of “mixed method design” helps this research project to collect multiple data by adopting different approaches in order to improve its reliability, validity or trustworthiness (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004).

The selected research tools for the current research aimed to retrieve valuable information so as to respond to the three research questions. The relationship between each research question and suitable research tools can be shown as follows: (See table 3.1).

Table 3.1 Research questions and suitable research tools

Research question	Instrument	Participants
1. What are the reasons for introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language in a sample of schools in the English context?	Interview	Head Teachers and heads of MFL department
2. What are the teaching methods used and what are the teachers' goals in Mandarin Chinese teaching?		
a) Age of groups, classroom layout and duration of each lesson	Classroom observation	Teacher and pupils
b) teaching method and teachers' goals	Interview, observation	Teacher
c) class plan and management	Observation, interview	Teacher
d) teacher-pupil interaction	Observation	Teacher and pupils
e) staff supply	Observation, interview	Head teacher, head of department, and teacher
3. What are teachers' and pupils' views about teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese?		
Pupils' feedback and perceptions	Questionnaire	Pupils
Teachers' perceptions	Interviews	Teachers

Each data collection method has its advantages, although, qualitative research methods have mainly been accepted and widely used in education research; they focus on the nature of the research phenomenon, researcher's engagement with the phenomenon under investigation and the methods used to gather details about the

phenomenon (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 1996). On the contrary, in the quantitative tradition, research instruments are “pre-determined” and “finely-tuned” technical tools which limit researcher’s flexibility (Brannen 1992). Fenstermacher’s (1986) explanation on the characteristics of quantitative approach echoed Brannen’s (1992) point of “in a specific context, quantitative methods are also known as confirmatory, hypothesis testing, predictive methods” (Wittrock 1986, p.41). Meanwhile Aliaga and Gunderson (2002, cited in Muijs 2004) define quantitative research as “explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods (in particular statistics)”. Quantitative data are gathered to generate numerical answers to test hypotheses (Creswell 2007). From the above illustration, the major advantage of the qualitative approach is that it provides a flexible research environment for researchers and allows them to discover unexpected and new occurrences (Jacobs, Kawanaka et al. 1999). In terms of data treatment, qualitative data are collected in order to explore the practice or collaboration in depth and to form meaning and hypothetical propositions. In comparison to the qualitative approach, the quantitative approach gains information from a large number of units.

A piece of research usually includes a number of different research questions and “a research method appropriate for one question may be inappropriate for another”(Gray 2004 cited in Wu 2010, P.142). As a mixed method research design, this research combined both qualitative and quantitative approaches which included multiple research instruments. It tended to understand collected data from various points of

view, as well as to answer research questions more comprehensively. The qualitative investigation aimed to explore more details in the nature of setting and rationales for schools introducing Mandarin Chinese, classroom practice such as teacher-pupils interaction, class plan, activities and teaching methods; while the quantitative investigation helped to quantify pupils' feedback of their Mandarin Chinese learning experiences.

In the research design, adopting appropriate research instruments can also collect many items of data that usually do not appear in quantitative form, such as beliefs and attitudes (Daniel Muijs 2004). For example, as a part of the research questions, this research aimed to collect data on pupils' attitudes to their Mandarin Chinese learning experiences and towards their teachers of Mandarin Chinese. Normally, it is impossible to shape people's attitude in numerical scales, however, by developing a questionnaire, each answer was pre-coded or given a number and pupils were asked to rate their experience. Then, the numerical data about pupils' attitudes can be analysed statistically.

However, every research approach has its restrictions as well as advantages (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias 1996). Qualitative studies are commonly challenged for their validity and reliability due to potential inconsistency, researcher's personal bias and judgements during the process of data analysis (Silverman 2005). This might be due to the fact that in qualitative research, the researcher usually plays

the role as core or main data collector, interpreter and analyser. In this sense, their personal living, working and education experiences would become a barrier to their work in the data analysis process. In referring to section 3.6.1 in this research, my supervisors and a native English speaker with a PhD degree helped me check the questions used in the interviews, classroom observations and questionnaire, during the designing stage. In addition, inviting participants to check the transcription of their interview content also helped to strengthen the reliability of data collected. Moreover, the employment of a questionnaire survey enhanced the data collected through the purely qualitative approach which in turn enhanced the validity of the research and avoided the problem of generalisation from qualitative research (Zach 2006).

The terms qualitative and quantitative are not only used in regard to research methods per se, they refer to data collected as well (Bryman 2008). Besides data gained from qualitative approaches, in this research, open-ended questions in the survey were also in the form of qualitative data collected. Furthermore, written text was preferred, for the opportunity of comments after each question; it aimed to provide in-depth information or rationale behind pupils' choices and help them to explain their answers clearly. Qualitative data collected from the survey were coded and used to answer research questions.

3.3 Research design

The design of a particular research depends on specific paradigms chosen by the researcher (Creswell 2007). After considering the rationale behind choosing pragmatism and mixed research methods for this research, this section explains the planning and implementation of the research design to study Mandarin Chinese teaching and learning in a sample of local schools in England. This is accomplished alongside the examination of issues arising through the process. Miles & Huberman (1994) argued the need for clarity on the part of the researcher when planning the process (p.181). The purpose of this study was to understand the rationales for both introducing Mandarin Chinese in English schools and teachers' and pupils' perceptions of this process. This study did not simply concentrate on the reasons for introducing Mandarin Chinese from each selected school; it sought to collect information on what happens inside the Mandarin class when the teacher and learners work together. With such a goal in mind, it is necessary to adopt a research approach to investigate real settings and further examine the discourses embedded in these settings (Zach 2006).

3.3.1 Research Procedure

The field work was carried out from October 2007 to July 2008. Table 3.2 shows the field work schedule in two research phases: preliminary field work period and the main research period. Table 3.3 displays the location and study duration for each

participant school.

Table 3.2 Field work procedures

	Preliminary field work	The main research
The secondary school	School PA and PB	School A, B, C, D & E
Time	October and November 2007	January –July 2008
Site	West Midlands, England	West Midlands Gloucestershire, England

Table 3.3 The main research procedures

	School A	School B	School C	School D	School E
Duration	May-July 2008	May-July 2008	May-July 2008	January-March 2008	January-March 2008
Site	Gloucestershire England	West Midlands England	Gloucestershire England	West Midlands England	West Midlands England

3.3.2 The Pilot Study

The significant pilot study intended to test and define the instrument of research to help the researcher modify the research design and increase the validity and reliability of the methods in data collection in the final administration. Wilson and Sapsford (2006) defined a pilot study as an:

“...investigation [that] is a small-scale trial before the main investigation, intended to assess the adequacy of the research design and of the instruments to be used for data collection; piloting the data-collection instruments is essential, whether interview schedules or questionnaires are used.” (p.103)

Gay and his colleagues (2005) argued that before a research piece is finalized, every questionnaire must be tested under the real world condition by a third party who is independent and not involved in the preparation process. It aims to assist the researcher to discover whether the research design is thorough (Seidman 2005). The pilot study in this research was conducted to check two research instruments for data collection: interview and questionnaire.

The pilot study was conducted in Schools PA and PB (see Table 3.2). Two questionnaires and three interviews were designed: one for Head Teachers and one for pupils. The questionnaires for the Head Teachers was not conducted in the main study as none were returned in the pilot whilst two Head Teachers felt it was more suitable

as a guideline for interviews and preferred to answer questions in interviews. Furthermore, in the main study, pupils had a very short break between lessons and had low motivation to participate in interviews after school, thus, the interview with pupils was not employed in main study either for this reason.

Having prepared the questionnaires and interviews, my supervisors made comments about the questions. Three teachers from Schools PA and PB participated in piloting the questionnaires and interviews. I did not ask pupils to pilot the questionnaire as I realized it was difficult to invite an individual pupil to do it after school. The teachers' and my supervisors' comments and answers helped me recognize a number of issues which were raised in the pilot study. In the case of the questionnaires, the first problem identified was the length of the questionnaire; because the Head Teachers have a busy schedule, they have limited time to answer a questionnaire; and pupils aged between 11 and 14 have limited patience to complete long questionnaires with long questions. Therefore, they suggested that it would be better to use short questionnaires with short questions but ensure that they capture all of the information needed. There was a concern that as I am a native Chinese speaker, there were cases where the participants did not understand or misunderstood the meaning of the questions so the piloting of questionnaires helped eliminate ambiguities or difficulties in wording (Cohen, Manion et al. 2007). It was recommended to check the time taken to complete the questionnaire, and identify items too easy, too difficult or too vague for participants to answer from their experiences. Finally, it was suggested to group

questions by different sections in order to help participants understand them more easily. All the problems mentioned above were amended in order to improve the final version.

Another important method adopted in this study was interview. Seidman (2005) indicated that carrying out a pilot of interviews is the way to enhance their reliability. Similar to piloting the questionnaire, the first issue identified was the number of interview questions and the time required to complete the interview. It is important to identify and beware of redundant questions which require only one or two words response such as yes or no. It was suggested that I use open-ended questions to encourage authentic responses and two-way communication in a relaxed and friendly atmosphere. It is also the way to enhance the reliability of the data collected. Some questions were not sufficiently clear or non-completed and were removed, while new questions were added to complete and clarify the meaning and make the interview run more smoothly.

The observations were conducted in 3 classes of pupils in KS3. I was sitting beside pupils and taking notes throughout the class. After two classroom observations, I found that pupils were interested in what I was recording. They were also interested to know who I was, what I was doing there and how long I would be there with them. Some of them even came to talk to me without getting permission from the teacher. The pilot observation indicated that my presence in the class influenced pupils'

behaviours and distracted them. It also affected teachers' activities as they were interrupted and had to stop the lesson and spend time on classroom management. The pilot observation reminded me that firstly, it was necessary to introduce myself and the purpose of my study to the pupils at the very beginning of the observation session. Secondly, sitting at the back of the class would help me keep a considerable distance from teachers and pupils, which avoids disturbing activities and class management. Thirdly, in order to eliminate bias, I should always bear in mind to record what I observed objectively without personal comments or judgements.

The next section will introduce the procedure of the main study.

3.3.3 Procedure of conducting the main research

This section introduces the information from participants and details the research methods used to trial the research and data collection; questionnaire, observation and interview were adopted. The procedure in handling each method of data collection will be described in this section whilst having an awareness of the disadvantages of each method in designing questionnaire and interview questions, will also be discussed.

3.3.3.1 The selection of the sample

The five schools were selected on the basis of their geographical location and ease of access to the researcher, but they represented a range of different types of schools. According to Table 3.4, School A is a mixed sex selective Grammar School which was established in 1574 and is granted both language and science college status. It has 948 high achieving pupils aged between 11 and 18, and employs about 120 staff. School B is a mixed sex comprehensive community school, which was formed in 1973 and awarded Business and Enterprise College with Visual Arts status in 2006. There are currently more than 900 pupils aged between 11 and 18. School C was founded in 1853 and was the first established boarding school for girls. It is now an independent boarding school with about 900 girls aged between 11 and 18 and has more than 200 staff. School D was formerly a high school for girls then a grammar school for girls but became a coeducational comprehensive community school in the late 1970s and under the specialist schools programme it was granted technology, language and vocational status. It has approximately 800 pupils aged between 11 and 16. School E is a coeducational comprehensive community school, the same as School D. The pupils in this school are aged between 11 and 16 with high achievement and exceptionally high standards of behaviour. It teaches about 1200 pupils and was granted Business and Enterprise status in 2003.

Table 3.4 Schools' profile

	Type of School	Specialism	Have link school with China	Assessment
School A	Grammar School	Languages and Science	No	GCSE
School B	Comprehensive Community School	Arts College, Business and Enterprise College	Yes	ASSET
School C	Independent School	N/A	No	GCSE
School D	Comprehensive Community School	Technology Language and Vocational College	Yes	ASSET
School E	Comprehensive Community School	Business and Enterprise College	Yes	ASSET

The schools involved in this study had been teaching Mandarin Chinese for at least one year and confirmed that they were willing to take part in the research. After a year's preliminary background research and discussions with supervisors, the research topic was set and the research questions were narrowed down to a workable and valuable extent. I started searching for schools which were teaching or intended to introduce Mandarin Chinese through the British Council's website. In addition, my supervisors were able to suggest local schools and provide me with their general background information, because the University I was studying at in is located in Coventry, West Midlands, local schools had priority. Afterwards, I drafted and sent a letter requesting to visit the schools (Appendix 7). 9 letters were sent out both by email and post between 14th and 20th September 2007 coinciding with the beginning of the Autumn Term. After discussions about a detailed research plan and working out schedules, 3 schools agreed to facilitate the field work. During this period, I attended a language conference with my supervisor in Oxford in mid April 2008. In one session, I met a head of French from an independent school in Gloucestershire who was very interested in my topic, and invited me to visit the school. This school, School C in this study, had been teaching Mandarin for some years, and achieves good results in A-level exams. When I was collecting data from the school, the teacher of Mandarin Chinese kindly introduced me to another teacher of Mandarin, and later we reached an agreement to carry out my field work in that school as well. This is school A in the research.

The addition of these two schools to the sample highlighted some concerns; the three schools which were found earlier were in the same county, and their backgrounds were more or less similar to each other. As a result, of the five schools selected for the field work, three were located in the West Midlands and two were in Gloucestershire. They were offering Mandarin Chinese for non-Chinese native speakers of different ages. The three schools represented the main Mandarin Chinese teaching and learning opportunities in the West Midlands. Through investigation of these five schools, the main features and factors of current Mandarin teaching and learning could be described and analyzed.

3.3.4 Instruments and methods of data collection

As a mixed method design research, questionnaire, observation and interview were adopted for data collection. In this section, the process of designing each research method will be described.

3.3.4.1 Questionnaire survey to Pupils

The self-completed questionnaires were employed to gain insights into pupils' attitudes and perceptions towards their Mandarin Chinese learning experience. At the very beginning of the research design, an interview with pupils was designed for data collection. However, in practice, pupils within the sample, had a very short break

between lessons, and they attended different lunch clubs during their one hour lunch break. A self-completed questionnaire was developed for data collection in order to examine the nature of learning Mandarin Chinese and practices with pupils. The survey could provide limited facets thus classroom observations were conducted to explore a greater variety of factors in the everyday practice of teaching and learning. Findings from the surveys and other research instruments were combined to provide a wider usage and discrepant explanations, of an enriching quality (Bryman 2008).

Cohen *et al*(2000; 2007) indicated that because questionnaires are anonymous, it encourages respondents to answer more honestly than in interviews, therefore, data collected from questionnaires is argued to be more reliable than from interviews. They also suggested that questionnaire surveys are a popular research tool because of its economy in design and its potential for obtaining responses from a wider population. Drever (1995) also suggests that questionnaires can help researchers to gain a broader picture of the phenomenon under study.

However, questionnaires have certain drawbacks which could undermine the validity, reliability and quality of research findings. Cohen *et al*(2000; 2007) argued that unlike interview, a self-completed questionnaire obviously asks respondents to complete it themselves. It is hard to avoid respondents' misunderstanding in certain items displayed in the questionnaire. To avoid this kind of misunderstanding in this study, I stayed with the pupils when they were filling in the questionnaires, and encouraged

pupils to ask if they felt confused at any point. I collected all the questionnaires which were distributed at the time, apart from school A and C as their teachers did not leave enough time for pupils to complete the questionnaire, I collected them on my following visit. This also avoided low respondent rate which is a drawback mentioned by some researchers (Daniel Muijs 2004; Gray 2004).

Another shortcoming is that the time is fixed for respondents completing the questionnaire so it is hard to guarantee that every respondent will treat every question seriously (Gray 2004; Cohen, Manion et al. 2007). Some may tend to fill in the questionnaire hurriedly and leave sections blank or miss items completely. In this study, pupils were asked to complete the questionnaire during class; both the teacher and the researcher were present. In school A and C, teachers helped the researcher to check pupils' answers to avoid missing items and blanks as much as possible.

Additionally, because each class comprised of between 6 and 13 pupils it was relatively easy to collect all questionnaires back in full. The data were analysed based on the school units as there was only one teacher of Mandarin in each school.

Although ordinary scales has become a habit measure of participants' beliefs and attitudes (Nunnally and Bernstein 1994), binary scales such as a simply yes-no binary format answer were employed as the questionnaire answer format in this survey.

There are two reasons why this survey employed binary scales.

Firstly, binary scales takes short time and easier for respondents to complete (Jones 1996). Many decades ago, Komorita and Graham (1965) and some other researchers such as Peabody (1962) concluded that the binary scales is easier and faster for respondents to complete and easier to score which as Likert scale questionnaires take longer time to answer. Preston and Coleman's (2000) finding has come to similar conclusions. It argued that both five and seven point Likert items are less stable than binary answer format, and take longer duration to complete. This survey was designed to pupils between age 13 and 16, in addition, they survey were finish in class. Considering the limited amount of time for the survey and the age of the respondents, the researcher has decided to apply binary scales instead of Likert scales which is more appropriate for this particular case.

Secondly, response style biases are likely happen on Likert items. Paulhus (1991) defined respondents biases as "a systematic tendency to respond to a range of questionnaire items on some basis other than the specific item content (i.e., what the items were designed to measure)" (p.17). It is acknowledged that response biases are caused by individual response style of respondents, which are unrelated to the content of the questions. Additionally, response styles vary from person to person but also influenced by the culture of respondents. In this research, participants were from different social backgrounds as well as the researcher and participants were from different cultural backgrounds, binary scales are more valid measures could be used

without losing of predictive validity. They are also very effective in capturing the direction of respondent attitude.

The questionnaire survey of pupils (see Appendix 1) aimed to collect information from pupils who were learning Mandarin Chinese to understand their perceptions and feelings of their experiences in learning Mandarin Chinese. Besides closed questions, some open-ended questions were included in order to elicit more information about their perspectives, understandings, beliefs, values, and concerns relating to learning Mandarin Chinese. The questionnaire was designed in three main sections:

Section A: Pupils' background information

Section B: Pupils' experience of learning Mandarin Chinese

Section C: Pupils' perceptions of learning Mandarin Chinese

As Cohen *et al*(2000) have noted “the questionnaire will always be an intrusion into the life of the respondent, be it in terms of time taken to complete the questionnaire, the level of threat or sensitivity of the questions, or the possible invasion of privacy” (p.245). Considering this, at the very beginning of the questionnaire I introduced my personal information: my name and my current situation; with that, my research topic was presented. Guarantees about the issue of non-maleficence and confidentiality, anonymity and non-traceability in the research were outlined. Finally, in the event of respondents finding any item to be “offensive, intrusive, misleading, biased, misguided, irritating, inconsiderate, impertinent or abstruse” (Cohen and Manion

2000, p.247) they could find a way to react, as I left my email address convenient for their reaction, I suggested pupils keep this page with them, in case they would want to contact me for any request of retraction in the future.

The questionnaire had nineteen questions in total. It sought to know pupils' general personal information, their feelings, suggestions and expectations, and their parents' opinions in learning Mandarin Chinese. I divided it into two parts. Part A was about participants' personal details, including their age, gender, the language they used at home and how many languages they can speak and when they started learning it/them. Part B had fifteen questions: five open ended questions, six closed questions and four multiple choice questions. I left a space for pupils to leave comments in each single question if they felt the questions were salient to them and they wished to explain their points of view in depth.

Q5 and Q6 aimed to know when they started learning Mandarin and whether they enjoy it. Q7 was a comparison question, which sought to ascertain the difficulties in learning Mandarin Chinese and other foreign languages. Q8 and Q10 were about their attitudes to their Mandarin teacher and reasons for this. Q9 was about the rationale for choosing the study Mandarin. Q10, Q11 and Q13 were multi choice questions related to what they usually do in the class and what they like most and least about learning Mandarin. Compared with other foreign language lessons, Q12 and Q14 looked for the differences in Mandarin lessons, and whether this lesson helped them

do other subjects better. Q15 was about whether they would continue learning Mandarin. The comment space was left for pupils to explain their reasons. Q16 sought to determine their parents' attitudes towards learning Mandarin Chinese. Q17 was an open question to explore teacher's teaching from the pupils' point of view. Q18 and Q19 investigated pupils' suggestions and advice for their teachers, and any information about China and Chinese culture they wished to know about.

3.3.4.1.1 Problems encountered in the survey

Non-response or invalid response bias was the most obvious problem in this survey. Given that the questionnaire had 19 questions, as secondary school pupils, respondents were probably unwilling to answer the questionnaire because of the questionnaire's length or they felt some questions were not salient to them, which resulted in low incentive to answer all of the questions. When I was collecting the questionnaires, I realised that some pupils answered all closed questions, and left the open-ended questions blank; consequently they did not leave any comments either. In this case, I returned the questionnaires to them and asked them to complete them. However, in data analysis, I found several of the answers to the open-ended questions invalid as in some the writing was illegible or the answers were irrelevant.

Furthermore, some comments from pupils showed that they misunderstood the question, for example, for question 4 "how many languages do you know? When did

you start to learn it/them?” This question aimed to look at pupils’ language learning history and skills, however, a few pupils responded by listed the names of languages they had heard but not languages they could speak, and left the answer to the second question blank. Cohen et al (2007) states this situation as one of the limitations of both survey and interview methods, because it is hard to add detailed descriptions or definitions in response to such questions.

3.3.4.2Interviews

One of the most effective data-gathering techniques are interviews, which provides access to the minds of the respondents and illuminate things that cannot be directly observed (Seidman, 1998). Interview also serves as an instrument to verify, clarify, or alter researchers’ pre-conceived opinions (Hutchinson, 1988) with the “lived” experience of participants, so that a fuller understanding of an event can be attained. In other words, interviews permit researchers to analyse and evaluate respondents’ thinking by providing vital information on respondents’ knowledge, opinions and preferences on particular issues.

As suggested by Hitchcock & Hughes (1995), interviews can be classified into three categories – structured, semi-structured, and unstructured – based on the degree of control and the types of questions posed. Researchers use the structured interview method to explore an certain attitude to a particular issue, however, structured

questions might be criticised for failing to contain points raised by the interviewee but are not included in the question list (Denzin 1970). This research has chosen a semi-structured interview format (Patton 1980; Denzin and Lincoln 1994) as the best suited data-collecting approach in this particular context, as it provided a platform for respondents to express their own ideas yet avoided “aimless rambling” (Wragg 1982, p.10) by offering sufficient shape and structure. It is usually done via direct interpersonal contact (Cohen & Manion, 1994) such that, in the process, it facilitates researchers to collect in-depth information and obtain information conveyed non-verbally. A certain degree of interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee was also incorporated in this semi-structured format. As a result, while allowing for an element of flexibility, the researcher still remained in full control. Useful information was also elicited by changing the phrasing of the questions and their order, which also helped to avoid unnecessary repetition.

The semi-structured interviews in this study were conducted with two school Head Teachers, five heads of MFL departments, and five teachers of Mandarin Chinese. The Head Teacher of School A was unavailable, and the Head Teachers of Schools C and D did not have time to complete the interview after being contacted more than three times; they preferred the researcher to interview the heads of the MFL department as they thought department heads were more appropriate respondents for this research and better able to provide sufficient information as requested by the researcher. As a result, only two Head Teachers were involved.

Greater flexibility, as a result of adopting the semi-structured format, was seen in the interview process. Not only did this particular format of interview succeed in avoiding the problem of the interviewer leading the interactive communication, it also allowed sufficient space for the respondents to express their ideas freely, as well as for the interviewer to follow up on the questions spontaneously, when necessary, in order to seek answers of greater depth (Cohen and Manion 2000). As these qualities of semi-structured interviews were highly desirable for this particular research, they were adopted as a key technique throughout this research to explore respondents' beliefs, understanding, values, and perceptions. At that current stage, information on practitioners' attitudes towards, as well as their views on, introducing and teaching Mandarin Chinese had been collected. Moreover, each individual teacher's understandings and perceptions of Mandarin Chinese education in an English-speaking environment were also gathered.

Attention was also directed to the interviewer-interviewee relationship and the atmosphere of the interview when the interviews were being conducted, as these factors could potentially alter and affect the validity and quality of data collected (Cohen and Manion 2000). Firstly, efforts were made to achieve a balance between rapport and research neutrality. To cultivate the sense of rapport, prior to a school visit, the researcher strived to build a good relationship with the particular respondent by means of personal contact, e.g. daily informal contact after each visit, the

researcher would stay in contact with the respondent and providing information sought by the respondent. Nevertheless, a certain distance was kept between the researcher and respondents at all times, in order to maintain a respectful level of professionalism. Secondly, the researcher tried to create a welcoming and accommodating ambiance during the interview to encourage honest and open responses. Moreover, the researcher would assure the respondents of the confidentiality of their personal views and refrained from making personal judgment on related issues.

3.3.4.2.1 Interview with teachers of Mandarin

Semi-structured interviews were employed to investigate teachers' experience and attitudes towards teaching Mandarin Chinese as a new language in a sample of schools in the English educational context. Due to the fact that three teachers persisted in using Chinese during the interview, the researcher had to translate the interview data immediately after each interview. The interview data were analysed to validate questionnaires and observation results which was also relevant to the content of the interviews. Furthermore, as there was only one teacher of Mandarin Chinese in each sample school, it was unnecessary to choose a sample for teachers' interviews. The teachers' background information is presented in Table 3.5. The following paragraphs are going to introduce five teachers' background one by one.

Table 3.5 Teacher's profile

Teacher	Age	Gender	First Language	Country of origin	Years of teaching	Occupation	Teaching Qualification	Degree
A	40+	F	Mandarin Chinese	China	10 years	Full-time teacher	QTS, TESL (Teaching English as a second language)- China	Bachelor in Teaching English as a Foreign language. (TEF)
B	50+	F	Mandarin Chinese	China	1 term	Teaching Assistant	TESL (China)	College
C	40+	F	Mandarin Chinese	China	16 years	Full-time teacher	TESL (China)	Bachelor in TEF.
D	30+	F	Mandarin Chinese	China	1 term	Teaching Assistant	TESL (China)	Bachelor in TEF.
E	20+	F	Mandarin Chinese	China	1 term	Teaching Assistant	TESL (China)	Bachelor in TEF.

3.3.4.2.2 Interviews with Head teachers and Heads of MFL

Department

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 2 Head Teachers and 5 Heads of MFL Department (see Table 3.6) in order to explore certain issues related to the rationale for introducing Mandarin Chinese. Interviews with Head teachers and Heads of MFL Department were held when their timetable permitted.

Table 3.6 Head Teachers' and Heads' of MFL Department information

Interviewee	School	Gender	Language for teaching
Head Teacher (IH-SB)	B	M	Was teaching French before become a head teacher
Head Teacher (IH-SE)	E	M	N/A
Head of MFL Department (IHoD-SA)	A	M	German
Head of MFL Department (IHoD-SB)	B	F	German
Head of MFL Department (IHoD-SC)	C	F	French and Spanish
Head of MFL Department (IHoD-SD)	D	F	French
Head of MFL Department (IHoD-SE)	E	F	French and Spanish

The questions for Head Teachers and Heads of MFL Department involved three parts (see Appendix 1). After the interviewees had introduced their schools and shared their comments on the ethos of developing pupils' learning and personal attitudes, the first

part went on to answer the research question “What are the reasons for introducing Mandarin Chinese a new language?” directly. The second part engaged with the factors of introducing Mandarin in their schools in practice, including the role of Mandarin Chinese in the curriculum at each school; teaching goals as well as whether they preferred more academic (balance of 4 skills’ practice) or cultural activities for pupils; how they acquired teaching materials; Mandarin teachers’ recruitment process; and what kind of support was provided by schools to teachers, such as professional development training. The third part looked at feedback from teachers, parents and pupils; the changes and difficulties they had perceived; and their perception in introducing the Chinese language. Finally, it explored their ideas about further plans in developing MFL especially Mandarin Chinese.

3.3.4.3 Classroom observations

In order to explore how Mandarin Chinese was taught and learnt in practice during KS3 and KS4 settings in the English educational context, semi-structured observations were considered the most suitable approach to collect data by directly watching and listening.

According to Adler and Adler (1994), qualitative observation is:

“...fundamentally naturalistic in essence; it occurs in the natural context of occurrence, among actors who would naturally be participating in the interaction...it enjoys the advantage of drawing the observer into the phenomenological complexity of the world, there connections, correlations, and cause can be witnessed as and how they unfold” (p378).

In the context of this study where the emphasis was on obtaining data in natural settings, noting teachers' and learners' experiences as they occur, it was therefore necessary for the researcher to come in direct contact with the subjects. Table 3.7 shows a clear list of the number of classes which were observed in each school; in total, 14 classes and 3 lunch clubs were observed and a total of 59 lessons (see Table 3.8).

Table 3.7 No. of classes observed

	School A	School B	School C	School D	School E
Year 7				2	2
Year 8		2			1
Year 9	1	1	2	1	
Year 10	1		1		
Lunch Club	1	1			1

Table 3.8 No. of lesson observations

	School A	School B	School C	School D	School E
Year 7				7	8
Year 8		8			5
Year 9	3	5	6	4	
Year 10	3		2		
Lunch Club	2	2			3

Observations in this study were guided by the purpose of the research (See Appendix 3), and the gathered data provided rich discussion points in post lesson interviews with language teachers, which also helped the researcher to investigate the existing factors in Mandarin classes.

By observing students and teachers in their classroom, the researcher only played the role of a researcher, sitting to one side when students and teacher, participating in this study, conducted their lessons, and noted down what took place in the classroom. The on-site notes also were used to guide and cross check information as well as to reinforce them during post-lesson interviews.

In order to structure my observation, I used a checklist (Appendix 3). Elliot (1991) comments that checklists help “structure observation but indicating the kinds of information needed to answer the questions” (p.81). My lesson observation pro forma had five parts. Firstly, it included the background information of the group I observed; the school and year group; the teacher’s information; the number of pupils present; the length of lesson; the classroom layout; the lesson plan and space for any other relevant details. Secondly, it pointed out the resources used during the class and how they were used. Thirdly, it looked for the use of target language by both teacher and pupils, and their purposes in adopting target language. Fourthly, the lesson content was noted to record linguistic objectives, culture, teaching methods and activities, assessment and communication and cooperation between pupils. The last section paid attention to pupils’ involvement and roles in class.

Combining multiple methods, data from the pupils’ questionnaire provided

information from pupils' points of view to support drawing a holistic picture of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in the English context. They provided evidence to answer research questions respectively.

3.4 Data analysis

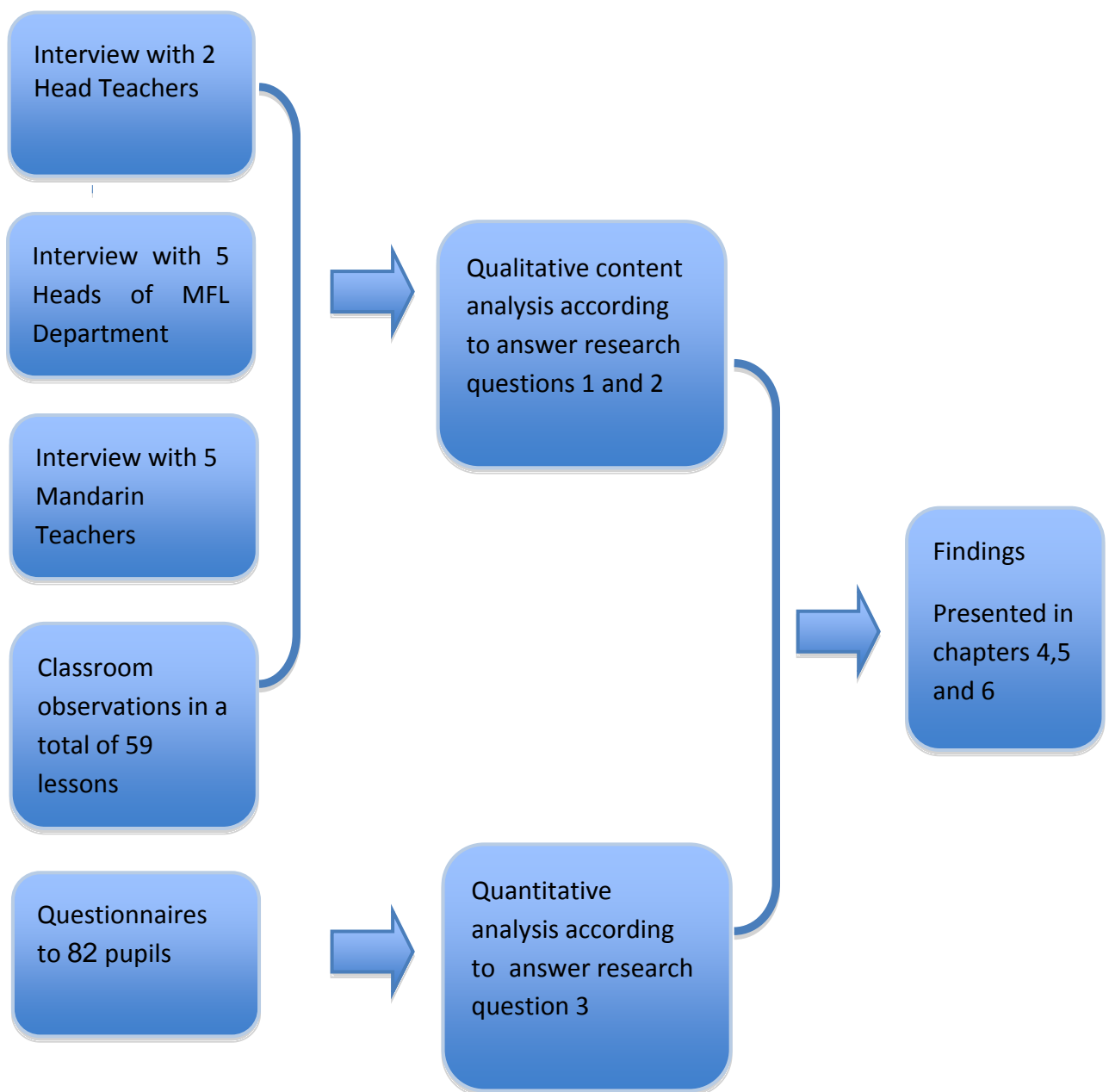
By adopting a mixed method research design, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected in this research from interviews, questionnaires and observation research tools. Denscombe (2007) defined the process of analysis as “the separation of something into its component part” (p.331). Miles & Huberman (1994) and Merriam (1998) suggested that data should be transcribed and analysed at the beginning of data collection instead of left until the last stage. Robson (2002) had different opinions as he pointed out that for a fixed research design, data analysis should take place after all data are gathered safely; and for a flexible research design, data should be analysed in the middle process of data collecting. Under pragmatic guidance, data analysis in this study took place throughout the entire process of the research, in order to work towards the research questions. This section presents how different data have been analysed.

3.4.1 Transcribing data

In this stage, the analysis aimed to identify an understanding of what the raw data from interviews with Head teachers, Heads of MFL Department, and teachers of Mandarin Chinese, classroom observation notes and questionnaire comments presented (refer to Graph 3.1). Then, in transcribing data, I needed to be very careful

with each detailed description from participants, and make sure to draw all of them together. After transcribing the raw data, I went through the data many times in order to identify relevant topics and concepts.

Graph 3.1 Overview of data analysis



I used a digital voice recorder in interviews which can completely retrieve long verbal conversations by simply playing back the recording. However, at the same time, it made transcriptions very time-consuming. As the interviewees were Head Teachers, heads of MFL department and teachers of Mandarin Chinese, they came from different language backgrounds, besides teachers of Mandarin Chinese, other interviewees were English native speakers. Hence, transcribing interviews with teachers of Mandarin Chinese took me less time than others. I transcribed interviews sentence by sentence and took me between seven to ten times as long as the interview time. Nevertheless, I thought it was worthwhile to do this myself as Merriam (1998) pointed out to hire someone to transcribe data would lose opportunities to become familiar with it. In addition, going through the data several times carefully with interview notes helped me to replay the details of the scenario when interviews were conducted.

I started transcribing data from the very beginning of data collection; Patton (1990) suggested that to have a full transcription of the interview is the ideal objective. I started organising interview data after I got the full transcriptions of each interview by highlighting the data in accordance with topics and concepts which was carried out while going through each set of data. Once the data were categorized according to topics and concepts, the analysis sheets of findings by different participants and for different topics were built up. They combined all the raw information clustered and the data was typed into the EXCEL sheet (see Table 3.9).

Table 3.9 Data analysis sheet (sample)

Sub-heading	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D	Teacher E
1. General information about teachers.					
● Relevant Training	<p>Because she was an English teacher in a university in China, she had a teaching qualification there. In 2004, two years after she started teaching in the secondary school, she received a letter from the Local Education Officer who advised her that she cannot teach Mandarin unless she has QTS (qualified teacher status). With her past qualification, she needed to go to an assessment only by teachers' training association (TTA). She passed three exams (literacy, numeracy and ICT) and many class teaching observations by her mentor half a year after she applied. Unfortunately, at the beginning she did not have any chance to observe other foreign languages' classes. She was the only one Chinese teacher in the city, and it is impossible to find somebody to talk to, and when she just came, she never thought she could observe any French or German class.</p>	<p>She observed some other foreign language classes in the school at the very beginning when she started teaching in England. As she did not come with the support of an organisation, she tried to apply to attend the training run by British Council and HSBC in London but as she was not in their registration system, she was rejected.</p>	<p>She had degree in China and taught English for 2 years in a high school in China, then worked as an English interpreter.</p>	<p>Three training courses in London run by the British Council with the support of HSBC. The training introduced teaching methods in England, and invited some experienced Mandarin teachers who work in Britain to share their experiences. Observed other foreign language classes. She learned a lot from it. It was a good opportunity for her to know the characteristics of English secondary school education.</p>	<p>She had training in London run by the British Council with the support of HSBC. She thought they provided very basic information about local schools, students, teaching methods and local cultures. Compared with these training sessions, she learned much more from her English colleagues. She observed their classes, and different teaching methods which gave her a great deal of inspiration in her later teaching with local students.</p>

3.4.2 Coding data

Coding or categorising the data is a crucial stage in the qualitative data analysis process. Coding merely involves subdividing the huge amount of raw information or data and subsequently assigning it into categories (Dey 1993). In simple terms, codes are tags or labels for allocating identified themes or topics from the data compiled in the study. According to Basit's (2003) who draws on the work of Miles and Huberman (1994), "codes usually are attached to chunks of varying-sized words, phrases, sentences or whole paragraphs, connected or unconnected to a specific setting" (p.144). Ely et al (1991) view the process of establishing categories as a very close, intense conversation between a researcher and the data that has implications for ongoing method, descriptive reporting and theory building. In this study, simplifying the categorized topics and concepts aimed to develop more specific themes and ideas, whilst facilitating further analysis. Based on the previously identified categories, the new categories were developed for detailed interpretation by reassembling the data.

In accordance with qualitative data analysis, I commenced with Nvivo 7; however, I found that this system made frequent mistakes especially when I was using words frequently. Subsequently I decided to discontinue using Nvivo and coded all the data and applied it to an EXCEL sheet (refer to section 3.4.1). At the end of the transcribing stage, the interview data was organized into three big files; it was divided according to the interviewees' roles in school which resulted in each interviewee having their own column. Observation data was organised into five files, one for each teacher.

For the questionnaires, I exported all raw data to SPSS 16 at the very beginning and planned to categorise data in it. However, some problems prevented me from continuing to use this software. In the questionnaire to pupils, questions 10, 11 and 13 are multiple choice. It was a real challenge for me to do permutation and combination of 82 kinds of answer from different pupils, as I have not had any mathematics practice since leaving secondary school eight years earlier. Moreover, SPSS would not process the answers to open-ended questions and the comments pupils omitted with open-ended questions were still waiting for me to categorise. Finally, I only used SPSS for single choice questions and to create tables or maps to support data analysis. Table 3.10 presents the abbreviations of data source.

Table 3.10 Abbreviations of data source

Type of Data		Abbreviation	Example
	Questionnaire to pupils	Q-A(age)-S(school)	Q-A13-SA
	Interview with Head Teachers	IHT (head teacher)-S(school)	IHT-SB
	Interview with Head of MFL Department	IHoD (head of department) –S (school)	IHoD-SC
	Interview with teachers	IT (teacher) – S (school)	IT-SD
	Observation	O-S(school)-C(number of class) –V (number of lessons)	O-SD-C1-V2

The next section will discuss the validity and reliability of data and findings.

3.5 Validity and Reliability

Validity and reliability are concerned as two key issues in research. Validity is concerned with whether the research methods and data are “right” which as Denscombe (2003) argued “the idea of validity hinges around the extent to which research data and the methods for obtaining the data are deemed accurate, honest and on target” (p.301). Wray (2006) echoed Denscombe, when he defined validity as:

“In general, validity is an indication of how sound a piece of research is. More specifically, validity applies to both the design and the methods of research. Validity in data collection means that your findings truly represent the phenomenon you are claiming to measure. Valid claims are solid claims so validity is one of the main concerns in research.”

In order to achieve this goal, Cohen *et al*(2007) suggested that validity in qualitative data might be addressed through the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved. Validity in quantitative data might be achieved through careful sampling, appropriate instrumentation and appropriate statistical treatment of the data collected (Cohen, Manion et al. 2007). Cohen *et al*(2000) indicated that the most practical way to achieve greater validity is to “minimise the amount of bias” as much as possible (p.105), however, it is impossible to achieve perfect validity and objectivity, as each person’s life experience and educational background would affect his or her point of view and behaviors during the research design and data collection process. In order to reduce bias and achieve greater validity, it is important for researchers to state clearly the potential bias, and be aware of it when conducting research (Wu 2010). In addition, researchers should aspire to as high a degree of validity as possible and consider other people’s perspectives as valid as their own (Hitchcock and Hughes 1995).

Compared to validity, reliability is reliant on data gathering and analysis technologies. According to Cohen *et al*(2007), reliability is a synonym for consistency over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents. Wray (2006) echoing Cohen *et al* (2007), suggested that:

“Reliability has to do with the quality of measurement. In research, the term reliability means "repeatability" or "consistency". A measure is considered reliable if it would give us the same result over and over again (assuming that what we are measuring is not changing!).”

In qualitative research, reliability can be viewed as a match between what researchers record as data and what actually occurs in the natural setting that is being researched, i.e. a degree of accuracy and comprehensiveness of coverage (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992, cited in Cohen *et al*.2000). Hence, researchers have to devise the research procedures as accurately as possible eliminating possible ambiguities. While for quantitative research, if the same research tool is used with the same sample, the result should be the same (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992, cited in Cohen *et al*.2000).

The current study was designed with both qualitative and quantitative approaches in mind. A qualitative approach was adopted in this research in order to explore and understand a variety of aspects to schools’ motivations in introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language, teachers’ teaching experiences abroad, both teachers’ and pupils’ attitudes and perceptions towards teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese. Regarding interview sessions for example, Cohen *et al* (2007) believed that interviews are the most practical way for the researcher to minimize the amount of bias in order to achieve the greater validity data. They further described the sources of bias that

exist within characteristics of the interviewers, respondents and the content of the questions. Silverman (1993) pointed out the importance of ensuring a consistent way for each interviewee to understand the questions in interviews in order to achieve the high degree of reliability of data they supply.

The questionnaire, as a measurement instrument, possesses adequate reliability and validity. In this study it is used to explore pupils' attitudes and perceptions towards their learning experience of Mandarin. The design of questions included both open-ended and closed questions, single choice and multi-item scales. According to Dornyei (2003) "even in cases where there are no resources and opportunities for elaborate validation exercises, we should strive for a questionnaire that has appropriate and well-documented reliability in at least one aspect: *internal consistency*" (p.93), he further explained the definition of "internal consistency" as "the homogeneity of the items making up the various multi-item scales within the questionnaire" (p.94) later. Furthermore, in respect of reliability, Dornyei (2003) stated that two other issues need to be ensured in a questionnaire; firstly, the questionnaires would need to have multi-item scales and avoid applying single items; and secondly, the items would need to work together with other homogeneous items which they share the same target. In this study, while gaining valid data from 84 respondents, the data gained from open-ended questions and multi-items scale would meet the requirement of internal consistency. In order to address the second issue, on the one hand when questions were designed I invited a native speaker to read through the questions carefully to prevent some questions not targeting what they were not meant to ask; on the other hand, as with my other research methods, I discussed my work with two supervisors and revised them, when necessary, to ensure that

everything would work satisfactorily.

In this study, in respect of reliability, the research design was laid out in plain terms, conducting clear data collection and data analysis in order to minimize bias and subjectivity. During the fieldwork, I refrained from soliciting any answer to prevent the data from being skewed by any form of preconception and after gathering the data, I interpreted data with the assistance of two supervisors. Moreover, for the interview with the teacher of Mandarin who preferred to use Chinese, I took extra care to ensure its accuracy by asking the interview participant to verify both the initial and final transcripts.

3.6 Ethical issues

Ethics is an important criterion issue which exists in each stage of the whole research process, especially concerning research that involves collecting data from people and about people (Punch 2011). Ethical issues also make judgments about the research purposes and the methods adopted in the research (Aubrey, David et al. 2000). Cohen *et al*(2000) indicated that “each stage in the research sequence may be a potential source of ethical problems” (p.49). Hence, researchers should be aware of the identification and consideration of ethical issues at every stage of their research including planning the research from the outset; the nature of the research project itself; the nature of the sample recruited; the appropriate method of study of the research questions specified; the methods of data collection; the type of data collected; and the analysis and interpretation of findings (Cohen, Manion et al. 2007; Lindsay 2010). Meanwhile, Cohen and his colleagues (2007) point out that in social science, researchers should investigate carefully when dealing with such ethical rules as

maintaining truth, honesty, knowledge, justice and objectives to their profession in their research but they also should come to participants with “no harm (physical, emotional or any other kind)” depending on particular situations of their work. Especially in educational research, the objects of enquiry are human beings therefore researchers have a responsibility to protect their rights, privacy, welfare and future development, which should be seriously considered. Therefore, several ethical issues needed to be addressed while conducting my research, namely, the access to participants and their acceptance, informed consent, privacy and confidentiality.

Bearing in mind the codes presented above, the first ethical issue which needed to be addressed in this study is access and acceptance. Cohen *et al*(2000) indicated “the initial stage of research project is that of access to the institution or organization where the research is to be conducted, and acceptance by those whose permission one needs before embarking on the task” (p.53). Furthermore, Anderson & Arsenault (1998) also suggested that “access to personal records, both as a primary or secondary source of data, must be approached both ethically and legally” (p.21). In this research, before entering the field, getting permission was the first thing to do in the UK so I applied for a CRB check before visiting the schools. As it was presented in section 3.3.2.1, I got permission from the Head Teachers via both emails and posted letters; in the emails and letters, I explained and clarified a detailed outline of the research aims, its nature, the methods to be used and the ways in the participants would be involved.

The informed consent aims to offer “the nature and the purpose of the research, the risks, and benefits” (Anderson and Arsenault 1998, p.18) to participants. According to Seidman’s (1998) salient guidelines in conducting interviews, firstly, I introduced

myself to participants, and informed them clearly about all aspects of this study, covering the research questions; aims; nature; procedures and what questions they were going to be asked. Secondly, participants were informed of any risks they might be taking by participating in the research. Thirdly, participants were informed that they joined this research voluntarily and they had right to withdraw from the process at any point. Fourthly, I ensured that the respondents' personal information, such as name, age, school names and address would not be disclosed. Finally, participants were informed how the results of the research would be disseminated, echoing Anderson and Arsenault (1998) thoughts that "it is the duty of researcher to protect the identity of individuals, there is a distinction between one's public role and private life" (p.21).

The process of employing classroom observations and questionnaires involved similar informed consents. In the questionnaire, besides informing pupils orally, I displayed the informed consent in the first page (see Appendix 4), and they could retain that page. I also ensured anonymity and left my email address with them for further requirements in order to protect participants' privacy and confidentially in the whole process.

3.6.1 Language considerations

Ungerson (1996) indicated that in translating collected data, adopting correct language could reduce the misunderstanding and misinterpretation of the data. Acquadro et al (1996) emphasized the important of the researcher's consideration of the national contexts, cultural perceptions and linguistic knowledge in the varieties of the target

language. Moreover, Ungerson (1996) suggested researcher's personal experience and intuition could help to handle response categories and translations.. The studies above proved one point, which is that it is very difficult to fully understand the meaning of the language without considering broader cultural contexts embodied in the use of language.

In this study, interviews with Teachers B, D and E were carried out in Chinese, as they thought using this language would make them feel more comfortable and help them to represent their ideas easily and correctly. The information they gave about their teaching in England was more or less affected by their living and working experiences in China. Then, when research focused on translating data from Chinese to English, it should consider seriously Chinese school culture in order to find out the comparable ideas in English, in data transcription. In addition, although Teachers A and C were working and living in England for more than 10 years, compared to the other 3 teachers in interviews, their ways of evaluating issues were more close to western style, although traditional Chinese cultural values still influence their behaviours and ways of using language. Hence, to translate and interpret these contexts, making a disclosure of deeper meanings of culture and school culture in Chinese settings was necessary to be treated seriously. In interpreting Chinese into English, Bai (2007) shared some examples in her work:

‘face’ literally means the front of the head and outward appearance. In Chinese, its deeper meaning means the ‘glory’ (*mian zi*, 面子) of a person (Bond 1991). Another example, ‘control’ (*guan*, 管) always relates to restraining or having power over something or someone; however, in Chinese, ‘control’ also means ‘to love’ or ‘to care for’ (Bai 2007, p.160)

Ungerson (1996) was concerned with ensuring the problem of corrupted data in the translation process, as it is hard for most researchers to have command of more than one language and have clear understanding of the culture within different languages. Hence, when contextualizing the data, the translator needs to be engaged with the research, understand the topic in order to make translations meaningful.

In this study, on the one hand, the researcher needed to translate data from interviews with Teachers B, D and E from Chinese to English; on the other hand, according to most of the data gained in English, as a non-native speaker of English, the researcher was fully aware of the effect that an inadequate analysis and interpretation of language might cause.

According to the translated interview data from Chinese into English, firstly, as all the questions in the interviews were designed in English, it is important for me to find equivalent terms or vocabulary available in Chinese to help interviewees to present themselves more capably. Osborn (2004) also indicated that it is difficult to find exact equivalent terms or vocabulary available in different languages. In translating between two languages, it is important to find comparable ideas rather than words. For example, before conducting the interviews with Teacher B, on my first visit I considered that she seemed confused about the terms “curriculum” “strategy” and “scheme of work” during our discourse. Then, I found terms “课程设置”, “教学大纲” and “课件” in Chinese and discussed them with teachers of English in China online to make sure I had found appropriate equivalent terms. During the interview, I explained those terms to Teacher B to prevent her

misinterpretation, however, sometimes, it can be difficult to find equivalent terms or vocabulary to use in translation from Chinese into English. For example, when Teacher D talked about her first teaching in England:

‘...pupils were very organised and quite at the very beginning, however, after one third of the lesson, they were a bit out of control... I would like to stop them, however, the head of department was there and did not say anything... I think classroom management is her job... I am a kind of ‘thin skin’, it is really difficult for me to ask her for help especially when she thought the situation was acceptable...’

(Interview note IT-SD)

The word “control” she mentioned shared the same explanation by Bai (2007) earlier in this section which means “to love” and “to care” rather than meaning of “to exercise restraint or direction over” “to hold in check” or “the act or power over” something in English. Furthermore, her reference to “thin skin”, meant that she is a shy person and does not want to bother other people too much. In this sense, the meaning of “thin skin” is irrelevant to the literal mean of the external covering of a human or animal body but more about people’s personal character, reputation, prestige and respect. Secondly, I carried out interviews; with recalling interviewee’s body language combined with my own understanding of Chinese culture and terms of language, I translated the interview data personally. Thirdly, I brought the transcriptions on my next school visit and invited the interviewee to comment on them to ensure the transcripts were accurate. Fourthly, a native English speaker who gained her PhD degree in English literature helped me to ensure that the language used in the transcriptions conveyed the meaning accurately. Finally, I read the data transcripts in English and highlighted relevant information, coded them for further interpreting to answer research questions.

When dealing with the interviews and classroom observations data collected in English, the whole process was assisted by the native English speaker mentioned earlier. For the interview data, once the transcription was finished, first I invited interviewees to read them through and comment on them in order to make sure the content was correct and reliable. Following that, the native English speaker listened to each interview recording carefully, with reference to the content of the transcription to ensure it covered all information mentioned by respondents. The native English speaker read through all transcriptions of interview data and classroom observation notes. In so doing, the process ensured the language used conveyed accurately both the linguistic issues and cultural context of English setting.

Consequently, in this study language considerations include researcher's awareness of linguistic issues and culture embedded within languages in translation and transliteration, which aimed to reduce bias and minimise the misinterpretation and misunderstanding of original data.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the pragmatic research design of this research is articulated. It reflects the detailed discussion and justification of the chosen research methods to answer the research questions and the rationales on which they were based. Clarification and identification of research questions and aims are the next crucial step at the inception of the research. After that, the concepts and issues associated with the research purpose are defined. Following the review of the balance of strengths and weaknesses

of qualitative and quantitative approaches, the determined research methods were incorporated into the mixed methods research design. At every stage throughout the whole research process, the considerations of validity and reliability instruments as well as their inherent ethical issues were a major consideration in all aspects of thought processes or in practice.

In the following chapters, a detailed presentation and discussion of the data will be presented, in order to interpret the data collected through the fieldwork.

Chapter 4: Rationales for Introducing

Mandarin Chinese: Views of Head

Teachers and Heads of Department

Introduction

Different types of data were collected using various research methods, as described in Chapter 3. In the following three chapters, I shall now explore the results obtained using the different research tools. This chapter, in particular, describes the data harnessed through the interviews with Head Teachers and Heads of Department, which occurred in face-to-face format. This chapter begins by detailing the rationale for introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language in a sample of schools within the English educational context. The chapter then moves on to address the patterns of provision in schools currently teaching Mandarin Chinese. Following this, it focuses on the support available for teaching Mandarin Chinese within the sample of schools forming this study. It then considers the challenge faced by participants in introducing Mandarin Chinese, in practical terms.

4.1 The rationales for introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language

This study investigated the research question: *How and why is Mandarin Chinese introduced into a sample of secondary schools in England?* In the light of this

question, the present section now seeks to clearly identify the rationale for the introduction of Mandarin Chinese as a new language option to pupils within the given establishments, by examining the data collected. Relevant data were gained from face to face interviews with Head Teachers and Heads of MFL Departments. According to the interviews, the interviewees' perspectives were categorized within three main domains, namely the impact on the global context and the status of Mandarin Chinese; the impact on schools' needs; and finally, the impact on pupils' needs in enriching their knowledge of the world or in increasing their professional opportunities, so as to be well regarded by higher wages and employers in the future.

4.1.1 Impact on global context and the status of Mandarin Chinese

Linnell (2001) indicated that wider socio-political and economic which concerned the role of Chinese both as symbol of national identity and as a tool for governing people in the UK. According to the interviewees' answers, all of those interviewed were concerned that the globalization process currently being experienced may affect the country in numerous ways. They further indicated that the growing importance of China, both politically and economically in the world today, had led to the current changes in the attitudes of people and the government towards China in the UK. Chinese is becoming a new and attractive language module for schools, as a direct result of UK's political, economic and cultural needs, for instance, the Head Teacher in school B noticed the importance of introducing Mandarin Chinese within such circumstances:

“We have 470 million people using English as official language, but you know there are 835 million people speaking Chinese as the first language worldwide. The fast

development of the Chinese economy increase awareness of the importance of the expanding status of China in today's world affairs." (IHT-SB)

Echoing Head Teacher B, Head Teacher E reported that the Chinese economy's increasing prominence was the main reason that led them to want to teach Mandarin Chinese:

"We wanted to offer Mandarin because it is going to be a very important language in the future as China's emergence as one of the lead economies in the world." (IHT-SE)

The Head of Department in school A indicated that government policy affected the process of introducing Chinese language into schools:

"... Chinese language has traditionally been a non-mainstream language in schools...in the past few years you can find the rapidly growing interest of the teaching and learning of the Chinese language. In England the government says Chinese is important and then it is up to each individual school whether they put it in ...' (IHoD-SA)

Head Teacher E, meanwhile, realized the importance of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese as a means of cooperating and coordinating economic activities between two countries:

"... more enterprises and institutions in our country now have business or contacts with China. It would be shame if our pupils don't understand the Chinese language and culture when they leave school." (IHT-SE)

Head of Department C agreed with Head Teacher E, believing that teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese related to economic needs, as she indicated:

"... obviously, the development of teaching and learning Chinese language benefits from the market demand ... like the needs of the tourist, we have so many tourists from China now, it is a huge market and requests a large number of people know Chinese

language and culture when we have business contacts and activities with people from China ...” (IHoD-SC)

Head of Department C was also concerned with the importance of increasing the knowledge of the Chinese language and cultural awareness, so as to meet the need for economic development in the UK:

“... it is hard to imagine if you don’t understand the culture when you are working or doing business with a people from different culture. Chinese is so different ... many of them learnt English in schools while we do not know anything about them. It is dangerous. We have urgent need for more people to be able to speak the language in order to understand their culture. It would help our people do business more effectively with the Chinese.” (IHoD-SC)

In addition to the political and economic needs which were mentioned above, Head of Department E related the teaching and learning of the Chinese language and the Chinese culture to pupils’ education as citizens:

“In our citizen education, we encourage our students show respect for different nationals, religious and ethnic identities. Teaching and learning Chinese language would be very helpful for them to engage with and explore this diverse language and culture. Maybe they would explore Chinese people’s beliefs and identities from their communication with the Chinese teacher...” (IHoD-SE)

4.1.2 Impact on schools’ needs

The second set of rationales relates to the needs of individual schools. Compared to the influence of globalisation, the wider social-political requirements, which are mentioned in the last section, result in schools’ needing to have an even greater effect on the decision to introduce Mandarin Chinese as a new language in a sample of

settings. In this study, schools' needs were also referred to as one of the main reasons by the interviewees. It is noteworthy that in schools A, B, D and E, lessons were introduced in the schools following their former head teachers' tours or visits of China.

School A introduced Mandarin Chinese outside the curriculum time, only in 2002. As Head of Department A recalled:

“Our previous head teacher, who is now retired, visited China in 2001. He showed big interests in the country, particularly in Chinese culture. After he came back, he decided to start Chinese lessons, and of course we were the first local school to do this... as always, our school's intentions to introduce and develop a more personalised and flexible programme for students to enrich their learning experiences... enabled the school to develop different ways of interpreting in league table...” (IHOD-SA)

School A currently teaches Mandarin Chinese at GCSE level and some pupils attended a national speaking competition which was organised by Chinese Bridge and Confucius Institute and successfully won prizes. Head of Department A was pleased that language was a supported area of the curriculum in school A; she found that Mandarin Chinese, together with other foreign languages, could enable pupils to build on their experience of language learning:

“Teaching the Chinese language enriches our curriculum... you know the ethos of a school can affect pupils' choices for their future. We expect to provide every possible opportunity for all pupils to match the needs of society... We encourage pupils to pursue their interests, including their language interests. Teaching Chinese in curriculum can motivate more pupils who like learning Chinese and engage with curriculum activities.” (IHOD-SA)

Meanwhile, Head of Department A showed her dissatisfaction with current teaching materials for GCSE Chinese. Referring to her opinion, the current textbooks 'Chinese for GCSE' produced by the British Council and the National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (NOCFL-Hanban, 2011) which were first published in 2003 have not been sufficient in supporting teachers in teaching Chinese. Therefore a more adequate syllabus is needed for GCSE Chinese which meets the curriculum requirements as well as guides Chinese native speakers to teach English speakers learn Chinese as a foreign language.

School B, D and E in this study shared a similar background in terms of introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language in their schools. In around 2004, several head teachers came to the University of Warwick to train, from Shenzhen (a city in southern China). There was a meeting between Warwickshire head teachers and Shenzhen head teachers with the latter inviting the former to China, when the first visit took place in October 2005. This programme was organized by the British Council and Hanban and was intended to 'offer a variety of different funding opportunities to help schools in England develop both partnerships with Chinese schools and the teaching of Chinese within their own school' (TheBritishCouncil 2011). At this time, Head Teachers in Schools B, D and E were invited to meet their links school's head teachers in October 2005, with the aim of seeking to work together in a number of different ways. Although a number of developments remain to be implemented, the main way in which Schools D and E have worked with their link schools has been for Shenzhen schools to provide language teachers, with the schools paying them to work in England from September to the following June, in line with

the academic year. They taught a range of classes, particularly to younger pupils, for example those in year 7.

Although the Head Teachers in Schools B, D and E had a similar experience in visiting and building up link schools in China, their rationale in teaching Chinese as a new foreign language varied. According to Head Teacher B the reason School B started teaching Mandarin Chinese was that they needed something that would make them different from other schools. Originally, they had a sixth form which they had had to close, as Head Teacher in School B recalled:

‘After a year we decided when we got a new head teacher that we would bring the sixth form back. Funding for sixth form was very difficult and they (Local Authority) only let you set up a sixth form if you are doing something that is fundamentally different from other schools.’(IHT-SB)

Head Teacher B indicated that all schools were in competition with each other, so that School B was in competition with schools around and in this sense, there was a pressure to fulfill parental expectations. In School B, art was regarded as a new subject; however, as there are many Art colleges around, they would not have been allowed by the government to go down that route, so they still need to do something special.

‘We also looked at maths and science, but their results were not good enough so we went for business because in this area it got one of the highest numbers of small business start ups in the country. There is a lot on enterprise around here, lots of small, one or two person businesses and so we decided that actually it would be a really good opportunity for pupils to learn’ (IHT-SB)

School B intended to improve enriching courses for pupils to choose and wanted pupils to enjoy learning. It was granted business and enterprise status under the specialist school programme. They also decided that they would provide law as a subject, which would make them stand out, and Mandarin Chinese as another subject, because ‘there is a massive potential for the future’ (IHT-SB). Then, they offered the sixth form classes a chance to learn Mandarin because they considered that it was both important and interesting as some schools do Hindi and other new languages besides French and German. In addition, Head Teacher B pointed that once a school had started a new module such as Mandarin Chinese, the local education authority would provide financial support, which aimed to encourage further provision of language in local schools.

Schools D and E are also specialist schools; Head of Department D and E were, indeed, in agreement that the “gaining of specialist status had a strong positive impact on the development of the language departments” (Evans and Fisher 2009). They recognised that establishing the link with schools in China increased the process of starting to teach Mandarin Chinese in the schools, although according to the interviews, traditionally, schools D and E only established links and exchanges with schools in a European context. In introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new foreign language it was able to expand their existing link programmes to be more international. Head Teacher E treated this as “content for global citizenship” (IHT-SE).

Head of Department D, meanwhile, emphasized that School D is a specialist language college; she stated that teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese worked like a bridge

to “provide mutual understanding and friendship with Chinese” people (IHoD-SD). She further indicated that working and communicating with their Chinese teacher, who was from China, developed both staff and pupils’ knowledge and understanding of the Chinese beliefs and culture. The Head of Department D was able to find different ways of teaching and ideas when she discussed teaching issues with other Chinese teachers, for example, she commented in the interview:

“ I am now still working on her (Teacher D). We have said many times look (Teacher D) students want to have more interactive activities and they want to be engaged. They will misbehave if they are not motivated and that is when it makes my job quite difficult because I have to say ‘RIGHT, LISTEN’. We have talked about this many times, however, in the class she still talked too much and left less time for activities. It might be hard for her, because it is too different to teaching methods in China. We can see that she has tried to design more activities ... still not enough.” (IHoD-SD).

Furthermore, Head of Department E considered that in addition to meeting certain national needs, the study of the Chinese language and culture would be treated as an economic competitiveness strategy for schools introducing Mandarin Chinese is a new way to develop schools’ competence of their future work.

School C had a different experience of introducing Mandarin Chinese to other schools in this study; they started teaching Mandarin outside curriculum time in 2002. When Head of Department C introduced their reason for starting to teach Mandarin Chinese, she commented:

“We have a teacher from China who married a local person and followed him to England. She was recruited as a secretary in school, and was coaching people learning Mandarin Chinese one-to-one outside of people’ timetabled lessons because they were interested in

learning Mandarin. I found out and thought that we could do it for our pupils.” (IHoD-SC)

Then, the Head of Department C suggested that the teacher start a Mandarin Club in school; she encouraged pupils of all ages to attend the lunch club; ‘it was more like a taster for pupils’ (IHoD-SC). School C started teaching Mandarin for GCSE in 2004 which indeed, enriched the curriculum.

4.1.3 Impact on pupils’ personal needs

From what was expressed by the Head Teachers and Head of Departments in interviews, pupils’ personal needs are further important issues that greatly affected schools’ decision and the process of introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new foreign language in a sample of settings. The views of the Head Teachers and Head of Departments in this study were in agreement, namely that “globalization has created more opportunities for contacts between different cultural groups and increased individual’s access to cultural diversity” (Li and Zhu 2011). Firstly, they believed that learning language would improve pupils’ personal communication skills, especially when they are dealing with different transactional situations abroad and noted that having corresponding customs from different cultural groups would increase pupils’ confidence while they are meeting people from different cultural backgrounds. Secondly, all participants in interviews commented that knowing foreign languages would help pupils with their studies at university and college level, providing them with a wider and better choice of career prospects in the future (Evans and Fisher 2009).

As a result of China's increasing prominence in the world, learning Chinese has become a new and popular non-European language which has been introduced into English schools in England. In discussing the rationale of introducing Mandarin into their schools, apart from Head of Department B, the majority of the participants were confident that providing an appropriate environment would not only help pupils to learn Mandarin Chinese more effectively, but also strengthen their own abilities in language and communication skills for future career development. Head of Department C even recognized pupils' learning of Mandarin Chinese language and culture as 'an economic competitiveness strategy':

"...there are very high expectations on the girls, because parents put high expectations... our girls are from worldwide, Mandarin is very popular, I think for our girls it (learning Mandarin Chinese) is a way to develop the global competence of their future work.'
(IHoD-SC)

Head Teacher E revealed that pupils are always interested in learning something different. As in all schools, they have the right to choose what they want to do with languages, as well as with other subjects; schools have the responsibility to build up an effective learning environment for pupils to provide them with more options during their learning process. He indicated that compared to other traditional foreign languages that the school offered in the past, Mandarin Chinese is 'different and a bit unusual'. It arouses pupils' interests in language learning. Referring to Head Teacher E, as School E was teaching Mandarin as an enrichment course on the one hand it broadened the number of languages; on the other hand it promoted the idea of the global village and of internationalism which they were trying to instill in the students. He wished pupils in School E to have knowledge of the world, as well as 'have an understanding of the place of English in the world' (IHT-SE).

Despite the positive perceptions mentioned above, the Head of Department B held different views in promoting Mandarin Chinese in English schools. In the interview, she indicated that in being a German teacher for more than 15 years, she understood the value of languages and according to the Head of Department B, there is no difference in learning European languages such as German and learning Mandarin as a foreign language. The aim for all language learners is to be able to use language as a tool for communication. However, she was concerned that firstly, Mandarin was very different from other European languages, although Mandarin Chinese was only being taught as an enrichment course she considered that learning Mandarin would be very hard for pupils to learn. Secondly, China and the Chinese culture are far away from British people's lives. From her point of view, only a small number of people in this country will have the opportunity to establish contact with China or Chinese people, and even when this opportunity is available, she believed that the Chinese language would not be the only language for them to choose in their communication because English is used worldwide. She emphasized that if pupils do not have the opportunity to practice a language in their life, they will forget it in a short time. Based on School B's situation, Head of Department B was not keen for pupils to study Mandarin Chinese and provided the following example:

“...in fairness, people in the England would have more opportunities to speak or read other foreign languages than Chinese language. We spend our holidays in Europe, or we have relatives like grandma or aunt from European languages... more or less, we have chances to use what they learn such as German in school in their life... But you see most of the students in this school are from working classes, their families cannot even afford their normal living expenses, having holidays abroad it is too much for them... they only have a few chances to adopt what they learnt, I mean EUROPEAN LANGUAGES (she said words with emphasis). You can imagine Chinese...” (IHOD-SB)

According to the situation outlined by the Head of Department, Head Teacher B explained his opinion from a different viewpoint; in Head Teacher B's opinion, promoting Mandarin Chinese 'was more like a taste for them (pupils)' (IHT-SB), it was more important than training them to grasp of a language. Head Teacher E further clarified that:

"...learning a language, whatever it is, helps our students open the door to an exciting world. No matter what they are going to do in the future, what we can do now is to develop their sort of awareness of languages. They need the ability to have a facility in languages." (IHT-SE)

4.2 Patterns of provision in schools teaching Mandarin

The interviewees were then asked about the patterns of provision in schools that were teaching Mandarin. The points they mentioned were categorized within three main domains, including enrichment and mainstream curriculum offer; availability of qualifications; year of provision; and China featuring in other subjects.

4.2.1 Enrichment and the mainstream curriculum

In this study, all five schools in this research began by introducing Mandarin Chinese by offering enrichment or taster courses such as lunch clubs or after school classes according to various rationales mentioned in the last section. According to the interviews with Heads of Department in Schools D and E, Mandarin Chinese attracted pupils' attention and stimulated their interest. All participants commented that pupils were very interested in this non-European language. Pupils were not asked to attend

classes every time in lunch club or after school classes. For normal Mandarin classes, pupils were usually enthusiastic, highly motivated and keen to learn at the beginning, especially when they had done one-year German or Spanish study and had chosen a foreign language for the coming school year. This is because “they found learning European languages hard. They wanted to do something different and then Chinese became their choice” (IHoD-SB). However, they lost motivation, since they could not make the progress they had expected.

In all of the five schools in this research besides Mandarin, pupils in key stage 3 had at least three European languages classes; French or German were compulsory for all pupils in years 7, 8 and 9 in schools B and D and French or German GCSE was offered as an option. Mandarin was taught as an alternative to German in years 7, 8 and 9. However, Head of Department B reported that because School B did not have enough year 7 students choosing Mandarin to make it viable that year, they only taught it to year 8 and 9 students. School D was quite a big state school, it had nine languages’ classes and in 2007, they planned that the more able classes would have one lesson a week less of French and many did Chinese classes instead. The more able students in year 7 had two fewer classes of French, one lesson of German or Spanish and one lesson of Mandarin Chinese. For the students who had more difficulties in languages learning, they only took French and German or French and Spanish. They did not take Chinese, but they were able to attend lunch clubs.

In the interviews, Head Teachers B and D and Heads of Department D and E declared their willingness to move Mandarin Chinese from ‘enrichment’ to a part of the mainstream curriculum. They were experimenting with different models and there

was a need to draw these together to provide advice on ways in which Mandarin could be integrated into the curriculum in a sustainable way. However the reality was not as positive as anticipated. Except for schools A and C, the other three schools were still operating in an experimental manner; they taught Mandarin Chinese for speaking level tests, at the most for 2 years, and therefore it was still at a very early stage. They needed time and practice to develop Mandarin as a full curriculum option and have focused their efforts on this area.

4.2.2 Availability of qualifications

Schools have different expectations for their Mandarin teaching provisions. In this study, Schools A and C are high academic achievement schools and treated Mandarin Chinese as other foreign languages in the MFL family, and prepared pupils for both GCSE and AS/A2 examinations. According to Heads of Department A and C, both considered that compared with other European languages, Mandarin Chinese is more difficult for pupils to get a better grade at GCSE. However, it is interesting to indicate that both these two Heads of Department were optimistic about the grades their first Mandarin Chinese GCSE pupils would attain the following year. They had a high level of confidence in their teachers of Mandarin Chinese:

“...Chinese is different to the European languages... but we have a properly trained Chinese teacher. I feel that I have to trust her because I am not a Mandarin speaker, I don’t really understand the concepts of learning the language so I have to trust her, because I cannot guide her. I go to watch the lessons and I maybe suggestions... she is very gentle sort of person so there are some challenges with the students, but I think she has got a lot better at classroom management over the years.” (IHoD-SC)

Apart from GCSE and AS/A2, Asset Languages are the main qualification experienced by Schools B, D and E. Asset Languages is an assessment scheme for language learners of all ages and abilities. Assessment for this award covers listening, speaking, reading and writing skills at a variety of levels, from beginner to degree level, however, Asset is being offered in these schools at a lower level to GCSE. In practice, at the moment, students who study Mandarin Chinese are not asked to pass all four skills' tests; their schools or teachers will choose 1 or 2 tests for them, according to suitability. In addition, different schools adopt it in different ways; in one school, a teacher of Chinese will set the exam paper for her students, while in another school, as the teacher commented, an external examiner will come and bring the exam paper.

4.2.3 Year group provision

Table 4.1 illustrates the provision of Chinese in different years of study at each school. It shows that pupils between Year 7 to Year 10 all had opportunities to experience Mandarin classes, whether in or out of curriculum time. Mandarin was more commonly learnt by pupils in Key Stage 3 than in Key Stage 4 for accreditation purposes. Pupils in Key Stage 4 and beyond were more likely to treat learning Mandarin Chinese as enrichment, or taster courses.

Table 4.1 The provision of Mandarin Chinese in different years of study

	School A	School B	School C	School D	School E

Lunch club	Y7, Y8, Y9	Y7,Y10,Y11	All pupils	Y10, Y11	Y9, Y10
ASSET		Y8, Y9		Y7,Y8,Y9	Y7, Y8
GCSE	Y9, Y10		Y9, Y10		
Enrichment	Y12, Y13		Y11		
Length	70 minutes	60 minutes	60 minutes	50 minutes	50 minutes
Frequency	2/week	2/week	2/week	2/week	2/week

4.2.4 China featuring in other subjects

According to CILT (2007), ‘nearly half of all schools in England (48%) reported that China featured in other subject areas in the school.’ In this study, Schools A, D and E organized a link between Mandarin Chinese and other subjects. The subject noted by all three schools in which China featured was that of Geography. School D invited the Chinese teacher to give a presentation on the one child policy in China, during Geography lessons. The Head of Department D was very excited when she recalled the experience:

“It is very interesting. Can you imagine, after that lesson, our children hold the similar points of views as XX (teacher of Chinese) or say you Chinese had. It is very different.”

(IHOD-SD)

Moreover, Schools A and D also introduced Chinese culture to Art sessions, for example, pupils in School A were learning calligraphy during Arts lessons, while both Schools A and D taught pupils to undertake traditional Chinese handicraft. Meanwhile, Teacher A was invited to give a lesson in history, and Teacher E joined the cookery course and made Chinese desserts with the pupils.

Finally, when asked to identify the schools' future plans for teaching Mandarin Chinese, the Heads of Department A and C indicated that they were satisfied with the current provision of teaching, while Head Teacher E considered that they would do more activities to enhancing intercultural communications with their link schools in China; however, he was hesitant about the detailed arrangements. Heads of Department B and D, meanwhile, did not supply any relevant information.

4.3 Support for teaching Mandarin Chinese

The support for teaching Mandarin Chinese in schools was the next issue raised during the interviews.

4.3.1 Initial and in-service training

The most frequent supporting factor mentioned by all the participants was that initial and in-service trainings were provided to teachers of Mandarin Chinese. Only Head of Department C provided the teacher with adequate funding for in-service training facilitated by Local Authorities. For others, 'initial and in-service trainings' were located expressly within their schools and involved interaction between staff in the same group.

“What we are taking on are people that can train ourselves and we can work with them better, at the moment with XX (head of department) whatever input, the training she does, whatever training happens will get her to feel part of the school and she will know the expectations, and then will know how to deal with the students here...” (IHT-SB)

“The teacher is in a time of observational period where she will come along to observe lessons before she even contemplates teaching and we purposely chose a group that that she is going to teach so that is how we train her here.” (IHoD-SD)

Moreover, Heads of Department A and C pointed out that they fund their teachers of Mandarin attending the annual ‘Chinese conference’ hosted by SSAT in London. They claimed that teachers of Chinese in this country still had few chances to attend professional events in order to develop teaching across the curriculum. It was normal that there was only one teacher of Mandarin Chinese in a school, and it was important for the teacher to get together with colleagues to explore the latest information in teaching and learning Chinese in England.

4.3.2 Tutor support

Schools A and C had full-time staff teaching Mandarin Chinese, it was therefore legal for them to work by themselves. Schools B, D and E meanwhile recruited foreign language assistants annually. In order to support effective teaching and learning, Schools D and E offered a full-time tutor to support them in the classes.

“I wouldn’t leave her on her own, she needs some support. She is never left on her own by anyone in the department. She is always supported and we see that as a positive thing because otherwise it would just be chaos... in most of the classes, I’m there with her.” (IHoD-SD)

“There is a whole department, there are 5 teachers there is always a full-time staff with her in class... not fixed people. It depends on who is available. Yes, sometimes I am there if I am not teaching.” (IHoD-SE)

School B also had a foreign language assistant as well; however, the teacher was always teaching and managing classes by herself. As Head Teacher B explained:

“I think that is because originally when we asked some people before they got there, they weren’t teachers because we put support in but we don’t really have support long term for people that they are here as teachers... well, as language assistant too.” (IHT-SB)

4.3.3 Activities

Having a variety of China featured activities was another key point mentioned by Head Teachers and Heads of Department when they were talking about the support for teaching Mandarin Chinese. The main activities were categorized within two main domains. One domain involved Chinese festivals such as celebrating Chinese New Year or holding moon cake parties which were located in schools; the other concerned visits to China and entertaining Chinese visitors.

All schools celebrated the Chinese New Year, according to interviewees; this was firstly because the Chinese New Year normally occurred in term time and it was easy for schools to arrange this within the timetable. Secondly, the Chinese New Year is treated as an icon for people who are interested in Chinese culture and previous studies (Byram and Zarate 1995) have found that in language learning, beginners are more easily encouraged by cultural symbols. Thus, it is straightforward to present the representatives of cultures in pupils’ learning environment. Within the activities, pupils were encouraged to experience cultural and linguistic diversity, for example, Chinese music, arts, tales, food and old legends. For Schools A, C and E, teachers of Mandarin Chinese and pupils in Mandarin classes led activities with support from the language department. The activities were open to all staff and pupils in different years

of study. Meanwhile, in Schools B and D, Chinese activities were limited to Chinese classes along. They were more like a topic for teaching in teachers' overall scheme of work, as Head of Department D commented "we spent a lesson talking and doing something about Chinese New Year when the time comes."

Head Teachers A, B, D and E and Heads of Department A, C, and D in this study visited China before or after they started introducing Mandarin Chinese into their schools. Among them, Head Teachers B, D and E were invited to visit their link schools and meet the Head Teachers in China, while Head Teacher A and Head of Department C had personal trips with their families, and spent less than two weeks in China before School A started, and after School C had started teaching Mandarin Chinese. Heads of Department A and D went to China with their pupils for a summer camp; all stating that they enjoyed trips to China and had a good time there.

In this study, all of the schools had experience of sending pupils to China for 2 to 3 weeks. Moreover, School E was the only school that hosted Chinese pupils; Head Teacher E recalled that they had hosted 23 Chinese visitors from their link school in October 2007;

"23 students came here, stayed for two weeks with families in this area. They went to classes and then went on lots of different activities." (IHT-SD)

It is interesting to observe that since 2009, School E had hosted Chinese guests only once, while they had sent pupils to China three times. When discussing this factor, Head Teacher E noted that it was very hard to manage with lack of funding being the first issue mentioned by Head Teacher E:

“Because when this school sends its students over we pay obviously for a lot of there. They pay for their flights but not living expenses. Obviously they stay with families so the families pay for that but when we took them to Trafford and London we paid for that and that was expensive and we can’t afford to do that.” (IHT-SE)

Furthermore, as the Chinese visitors were junior school pupils, they spoke very limited English. This became a big problem for some families who had hosted visitors, especially when they needed to live together with these visitors for two weeks. Cultural differences also brought challenges which it is not possible to request that all local families have knowledge of Chinese culture and custom. It is also difficult for young pupils to be away from home and stay with local people alone for two weeks, particularly when they had problems communication. All these problems were detrimental to both visitors and hosts.

“I think they found it hard because two weeks is a long time and you get issues sometimes to do with food and things like that where you know some Chinese students didn’t like any food they had and weren’t eating very much and the English family was a bit worried about them.” (IHT-SE)

Problems not only occurred in hosting guests; Head Teacher B also indicated problems they met when organizing pupils’ visits to China. Head Teacher B was certain that introducing Mandarin Chinese would open up pupils’ eyes to a different world, however, School B was located in a poor area, and few pupils had been outside of the city.

“They (pupils) were excited as we took a trip on Wednesday afternoon, Year 7, we went to the park around the corner and a lot of the kids got excited about going to the park for the afternoon.” (IHT-SB)

Therefore, although School B subsidized trips and charged each pupil less than 200 pounds for foreign trips, this might be a major economic burden for many parents. In addition, the financial subsidy from the school also became a burden for School B.

“We sent 15 children out to China, think about how much it actually cost? It probably would have paid for a part-time/full-time teacher. Thinking about which is the best method for promoting Mandarin in schools? Having a permanent member of staff teaching Mandarin or sending 15 children to China for a week?” (IHT-SB)

4.4 Further challenges facing schools

While the previous sections of this chapter have sought to consider the rationale, provisions and supporting factors involved in promoting Mandarin Chinese, this section goes on to discuss the difficulties that the schools themselves have encountered.

It is interesting to observe that Heads of Department A and C were somewhat satisfied with the current situation of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese within their schools. They had recruited permanent teachers and used practical textbooks for Chinese GCSE. They suggested for me to explore challenges raised from interviews with teachers and classroom observations.

Schools B, C and D exchanged or recruited teachers from link schools in China. According to interviewees from Schools B, D and E, the first difficulty they specified was that Chinese was too hard for pupils to learn. The other difficulty was in terms of staff recruitment, this included a lack of professionally trained Chinese teachers, a

lack of continuing teaching and different teaching methods employed by foreign language assistants.

In line with the perception that Chinese is a very different language from other European languages, the findings show that from the schools' point of view, they did not think they were really teaching Chinese, especially in teaching and learning Chinese characters.

"It is a difficult thing to learn characters. Whether it is right or whether, we should try and do more work on the characters." (IHoD-SE)

Head Teacher B claimed that languages were not the most popular GCSE courses in school. Indeed, pupils had poor motivation in studying languages (Coleman, Galaczi et al. 2007), as they were perceived to be difficult subjects. The situation deteriorated in 2003 when "MFL was removed from the core curriculum at KS 4 in England" (Evans and Fisher 2009). In practice, language learning is not only a process to learn signs and symbols of a linguistic system (Coates 1998); the learning process is identified as an information exchange process with interlocutors and relates to learners' identities of the social world and cultural meanings (Norton and Toohey 2002). Head Teacher B referred to the situation in School B, reporting as follows:

"In most of the subjects you can get away with not knowing as much but with languages there are no way you can get away without knowing the language. In English you can get away to a certain extent without been able to spell or punctuate. In history and geography you can waffle a lot but language I think is like maths because it is very specific and you cannot get without doing a lot of it." (IHT-SB)

In Schools B, D and E, the foreign language assistants spent one-year teaching overseas. The schools showed their appreciation for having language assistants support their pupils to learn Chinese language and culture, whilst bringing their language skills and valuable knowledge of the Chinese society to schools. However, although they were properly trained and gained teaching qualifications in China, it was still difficult for them to familiar with pedagogic approaches typical of English secondary schools. The Head of Department D claimed that this might be because they were educated and trained in the Chinese education system, which is very different to the way in which language teachers were educated and trained in England. They needed support in lesson planning, monitoring and assessment to match their pupils' needs.

“We are giving her feedback all the time and what we have said is that you need... I tried hard to let her know the students in this school can't sit and listen for an hour, they need to be doing stuff. At the beginning of her teaching lessons we were quite dictatorial so we tried to say to her 'look you cannot expect them to listen, you have to engage with them and if they are not engaged they are going to misbehave and then you are going to have a crisis.” (IHoD-SD)

Based on the Schools' experiences, the most challenging issue was that normally foreign language assistants had to finish their teaching in England after one year and went back to China once they finished the mutual run-in period. After this, new foreign language assistants came for the following school year, and a similar new run-in period started. The fact that teachers of Mandarin Chinese changed from year to year meant that continuity and progression in teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese became difficult to achieve.

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter has been to identify the rationale for promoting Mandarin Chinese in a sample of schools. The data was gained from interviews with Head Teachers and Heads of Department. The findings have illustrated a range of factors that may have contribute to promoting Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language in English schools: 1) raising the profile of the school; 2) enriching the curriculum; 3) strengthening the department; 4) gaining financial support from the local educational authorities; 5) internationalism; 6) increasing pupils' language and cultural awareness for facing issues of globalization; and 7) helping pupils increase professional opportunities and leading to higher education and wages. The findings thus far have illustrated that all the demands mentioned were closely linked with the process of globalization. The findings revealed that schools in this study were keen to provide Chinese teaching and as far as provision in schools for teaching Mandarin was concerned, it was more commonly offered as an enrichment or taster courses in schools when Mandarin was first promoted, as with Schools B, D and E in this study. Schools with high achieving pupils, after a period of teaching Mandarin out of curriculum they started promoting it for GCSE. All five schools in this study confirmed that they benefited from teaching Mandarin Chinese. The findings revealed that while working with teachers of Mandarin Chinese, both teachers' and pupils' international dimensions were extended. Moreover, learning Mandarin enhanced their intercultural understanding; however, the findings also revealed that programmatic problems faced, such as teacher's professional training, continuity, progress and funds. Crucially, schools with foreign language assistants revealed that because of the different teaching methods adopted by language teachers in UK and in China, pupils in Mandarin classes easily lost interest through rote learning or dull repetition by

teachers. The findings also suggested that foreign language assistants would add more cultural components and games to keep pupils engaged. Language assistants from different cultural and education backgrounds need time to ameliorate these issues and incorporate Mandarin into the local school system.

Chapter 5 Teaching and Learning

Mandarin Chinese in Practices

Introduction

Chapter 4 described the rationales for schools introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new foreign language and identified patterns of current provisions, available support provided by schools to teachers of Mandarin Chinese and the difficulties they faced. This chapter now focuses on analysing teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in practice, in classrooms. Data were collected by classroom observations and semi-structured interviews with five teachers of Mandarin Chinese which occurred in a face-to-face format.

5.1 Relevant professional teacher training

“Teachers hold the key to making or breaking a program” (Stewart and Wang 2005p.8). Like teachers of other subjects, teachers teaching Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language have a direct impact on curriculum arrangements and planning the teaching activities. Their education experiences, professional trainings, knowledge and understanding of language education, particularly of teaching Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language, largely determined the decisions they made in classroom practices. In Chapter 3, teachers’ educational backgrounds and professional preparations were introduced in section 3.3.3.2a. Based on this, this section now focuses on additional training which influences teachers’ practical interpretation of what and how to teach Mandarin Chinese in schools.

As it was mentioned in section 3.3.3.2a, all five teachers of Mandarin Chinese were educated and gained degrees and qualifications in Mainland China. Before they became teachers of Mandarin Chinese teachers in England, they had few years' teaching experience in teaching English as a foreign language in Chinese secondary schools (Teachers C, D and E), a technology college (Teacher B) and an university (Teachers A). Interviews with teachers revealed that as a rule, in China, state schools and universities required a minimum of a bachelor's degree. In this study, Teachers A, C and D had a Bachelor's degree in teaching English as a foreign language; Teacher E had a Master's degree in teaching English as a foreign language and Teacher B had a diploma in an English Language course. All confirmed that they had 'Teacher Certification' in China, however, besides Teacher A, other teachers did not have any formal training in teaching Chinese as a foreign language before they started teaching in England.

In referring to her teaching experiences in England, Teacher A recalled that:

“...because I was a university teacher in China, I had a qualification there and also graduated from university. When I came to England I started teaching in year 2002 and I got a letter from School A saying that if I was not a member of the teacher's council they would not offer me the job.” (IT-SA)

Teacher A was quite surprised with this, she considered that “I have been teaching my whole life, more than 10 years” and could not understand why they would not allow her to teach and asked her to do another qualification – Qualified Teachers Status (QTS). Based on the qualification she got in China, she was asked to get her social assessment route by a Teachers Training Association (TTA); she started in December

2004 and was awarded the qualification in May 2005 passing three tests: literacy, numeracy and ICT in addition to a lot of teaching observations. After being awarded QTS, Teacher A started teaching Mandarin Chinese in School A. The Head of Department at that time came to observe her classes frequently which placed her under major pressure, and she built up a large portfolio. Looking back to this period, Teacher A said “It was very hard work but it was worth it.”

As part of QTS, Teacher A has attended an annual Chinese conference in London since 2003, as mentioned by Heads of Department A and C in Section 4.3.1. Although the conference was not a formal professional training section, Teacher A found that it was an informative event as:

“It is for Chinese teachers like me, school leaders, scholar’s and educators for the Chinese language education in UK. We share teaching experiences, and discuss the latest information on policies, curricula and practices in teaching Chinese and about today’s China.” (IT-SA)

Teacher C is another teacher who attended this conference in this study. She made a similar comment by stating that:

“we exchange our teaching experiences in the conference... the information afforded from other teachers helped (me) keep teaching moving forward and improved what I am working with.” (IT-SC)

Teacher C also reported that as distinct from Teacher A’s experience, Teacher A did not have any relevant training in teaching Chinese as a foreign language before and after she started teaching Chinese. She had a bachelor’s degree in English language, teaching English in a secondary school in China for two years and worked as an

interpreter before she moved to England with her English husband. Consequently, according to what Teacher C said in the interview, the annual ‘Chinese teaching’ conference was the only channel for her to gain professional knowledge of how to teach Chinese in England, as well as to receive information regarding teaching Chinese across the curriculum. In addition, observing other language classes in School C was a way for her to become more familiar with the English teaching system.

According to Teachers B, D and E, besides observing other languages teaching and the training courses ran by the British Council with the support of the DCSF, the HSBC education Trust and Hanban (see Section 3.3.3.2.a) they did not have any professional training in what and how to teach Chinese as a foreign language. In interviews, Teachers B, D and E said it would be helpful if they would have more relevant professional training, however, they also showed that because they were only teaching Mandarin Chinese abroad for one year, whether to have professional trainings in what and how to teach Chinese language does not matter to their career plan in the future:

“...to be honest, it (having relevant professional training) makes no difference to me after this year’s teaching. I am going back to teach English in the rest of my life anyway.” (IT-SD)

5.2 Teachers’ goals of teaching

The interview questions then proceeded towards the teachers’ main goals of their teaching in each of the sample schools in England. According to their main goals of teaching, all five teachers of Mandarin in this study’s initial responses engaged with what exams or tests pupils were going to take by the end of the academic year.

Besides exams, teachers' goals of teaching were categorised within another four domains which are increasing Chinese cultural knowledge; developing language skills; improving intercultural communication; and helping prepare pupils' for higher level education.

All participants in this study indicated the importance placed on Chinese cultural knowledge in teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese. According to Teachers B, D and E, learning Mandarin Chinese would help pupils to enrich their understandings of the Chinese language and culture. In interviews, Teachers B and D reported that in their classes, they emphasised on presenting information and arranging relevant activities to express Chinese culture. As the findings will be considered in more detailed later in sections 5.4.8.3 and 5.4.9, Teachers B and D did not place emphasis on language skills training in classes as they found learning Chinese language skills to be too difficult for learners during early stage of learning. In addition, Asset exams did not present a clear routine for them about the tests at the end of the year; they felt it was difficult to carry on teaching for test which was what they used to do in China. Such factors impacting on them have a clear goal in their teaching. In this sense, Teachers B and D's teaching and learning goals were more flexible (Chang 2009) in which pupils had not been asked to meet the instructional teaching and learning tasks firmly.

Teacher E felt it was hard to agree with Teachers B and D's statements; she believed language learning is a process to learn both language skills for communication and cultural categories. It is hard to separate language skills training and culture in language teaching and learning;

“how can people learn a culture without learning its language? The same, how can people avoid culture issues when you are learning languages.” (IT-SE)

At the same time all participants indicated that teaching to pass tests was another goal in teaching Mandarin as a foreign language. It echoed Fredriksen’s (1984) and Leontiev’s (1981) work which was mentioned in section 2.6.4. According to interviews with Teachers A and C, people in Schools A and C were goal-directed in teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in order to prepare pupils for higher level education, some pupils in the Chinese classes were going to attend Chinese GCSE in next year. With this teaching goal, Teachers A and C provided pupils with a fair ability in grammar, reading comprehension and good practice in developing language skills in communication. According to Schools B, D and E, pupils were going to take Asset tests by the end of the school year and teachers mentioned this factor all the time during the interviews, and undoubtedly, the Asset tests guided and affected teachers’ teaching and learning. Because Asset only asked Schools B, D and E to take listening and speaking tests, Teachers B, D and E’s teaching content purely emphasised listening and speaking skills. Moreover, they wished to know more detailed information about Asset tests in order to be better prepared beforehand.

“They told me that pupils need to take Asset at the end of the school year. I asked them (Head Teacher and Head of Department) many times for the relevant information, they did not give me any useful feedback, just said they will let me know at the time, they will arrange it. I need to know more about the test and do preparations for it.” (IT-SD)

There is another important factor that needs to be considered; in this study both pupils and teachers in Schools B, D and E had been told that they would attend the Asset tests at the end of the academic year. The tests would assess their listening and

speaking abilities; however, in interviews, none of the teachers had a clear idea of what and how to assess their pupils. In addition, they claimed that there were no textbooks or any teaching resources provided by the exam board to support and develop their teaching and learning.

5.3 Teaching materials

When the participants in this study were asked about the process of preparing teaching materials, they gave different answers. Teacher A and C started teaching Mandarin in the late 1990's and early 2000s in England. They shared similar Mandarin teaching experiences in their interviews. According to their interviews, there had been some developments in the field; at the very beginning of their teaching careers, there were no curriculum documents or project aims for them to follow. Most of the learners were learning for fun or interest in learning something different and challenging. They did not do it for the sake of gaining a qualification. Hence, they only could base their work on the requests from learners and made up teaching plans, content, and teaching goals on this basis. They made handouts and brought teaching materials to the class, such as CDs, DVDs and books from China to help pupils to learn Mandarin. Meanwhile, they mentioned that there were a few textbooks available before the GCSE textbooks published by the British Council in 2006. Teacher A adapted the university book set for pupils and School A started to follow the Mandarin Chinese GCSE as a curriculum subject in 2006. School C started in 2004, 2 years before the GCSE textbooks were published. Teacher C was then asked about the teaching materials she adopted during those 2 years, she noted that:

‘...based on the teaching materials I made, and all the stuffs I had, I make up a special handout to follow the specification of the exam board-edexcel.’(IT-SC)

Due to the current circumstances of teaching materials in teaching Mandarin, neither Teachers A or C complained as they thought ‘they (teaching materials) are getting so much better, they are coming out very, very fast. Everyone is still trying to get it right obviously.’ However, when they were asked that besides ‘Chinese for GCSE which they used, why they did not use other textbook such as ‘Easy steps to Chinese’, Teacher A said:

“...we know what the teaching textbooks are like and we have to decide what we like. And because the textbook is related to the exam you cannot use another textbook. The other book is fine.” (IT-SA)

Both Teacher A and C said that they had chosen PowerPoint as the most useful tool for their teaching. They made PowerPoint presentations to structure their teaching, following the teaching contents of the textbooks but used PowerPoint in order to transmit more information and help pupils to understand and practice new knowledge with what they had learnt. It is necessary to indicate that although Teachers A and C had authentic teaching materials at that time, they still needed to prepare supplementary teaching materials by themselves.

Teachers B, D and E in this study were new to teaching Mandarin as a foreign language. In the interviews, a lack of appropriate teaching materials was mentioned as an important problem for them. A variety of textbooks: Chinese in Steps (Zhang et al. 2005), Chinese for GCSE (Tawakkul 2003) and Ni Hao (Hello)(Fredlein and Fredlein 2001) were mentioned by several. They purchased “China Made Easy” and “Easy steps to Chinese” as textbooks for teaching and learning Mandarin, these books cover common daily greetings and introduced Chinese social culture in an easy way to help

pupils to learn quickly. They are organized by unit with different topics e.g. colors, fruits. However all three teachers showed their dissatisfaction with the available teaching materials, considering that they were unsuitable for a UK context, especially for beginners.

According to the Heads of Department in School E, she found that the textbook did not seem to be very suitable for local learners, as she commented:

“It is too hard for learners, I think it is for learners who have the chance to speak and use Chinese in their life such as British of Chinese descent”. (IHoD-SE)

Teachers D and E echoed this opinion as Teacher D found that “what we have got it too hard to practice.” Furthermore, Teachers D and E complained that the textbooks they got in Schools D and E were organized by different sessions and units and lacked project teaching plans and aims. In interviews, Teacher E noted that “pupils in my classes need to pass ASSET at the end of the school year. However, I need to design a general teaching plan by myself first, and then follow it step by step...It would be very helpful, if the textbook design would relates to ASSET exams.” As a result, Teachers D and E employed the textbooks at the very beginning of their teaching but abandoned their use quickly and produced their own teaching materials to match the needs of ASSET exams.

Moreover, the researcher was told by Teacher B, D and E that they were supposed to prepare teaching resources and design teaching materials before they started teaching in England. This was a significant challenge for them. For one thing, it was the first time that they had taught Mandarin as a foreign language, as they all were teaching English in China. Although they attended training sessions provided by the British

Council and Hanban, it was still hard for them to consider what learners needed to learn before their teaching experience. From their point of view, the trainings only provided them with a general background to the British society. According to pupils' characteristics under different circumstances, they did not have any understanding of this. Second, teachers indicated that they did put a lot of effort into finding documents and teaching resources to help their teaching, however, there was no documentation that could guide their teaching and only a few resources could be used in their teaching, as these resources or materials were designed for adults. Third, in this study, there was only 1 teacher teaching Mandarin in each school, therefore, they could only work individually, but did not design teaching materials and discuss teaching plan with colleagues.

In interviews, only Teacher D said she had a handout made by the teacher who was teaching Mandarin in School D the year before Teacher D came. However, the handout only had a few pages, which were designed for the whole year's teaching progress. Teacher D did not find it helpful as she had her own teaching plan and her pupils needed to pass ASSET at the end of the school year and the pupils in the year before did not need to do it, indicating the different teaching goals.

It might be interesting to pay attention to the problem of confusion within departments in school management. Teacher B was the only teacher who had never seen a textbook from the very beginning of her teaching. In the interviews, the Head of Department in School B thought they were using "Easy steps to Chinese" which they bought from the LA. However, in practice, Teacher B had never seen the book, in the interview Teacher B said:

“We do not have a proper textbook. I do not think this school has any textbook in Mandarin. Luckily, I contacted the teacher who was working here last year. He suggested that I brought relevant books and teaching materials before I came over from China. So although I do not have any experience of teaching Mandarin Chinese, I made all the teaching materials in class myself.” (IT-SB)

After the interviews with both teacher and the Heads of department in School B, I had an interview with the Head Teacher. He confirmed that they bought textbooks from the LA, but they had never used them, as they thought ‘the books might be too hard for students in the school’. He led me to a trunk room and showed me the books; they looked brand new, but had been bought two years ago.

5.4 Issues in teaching

As this research aims to explore factors in teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in practice, this chapter considers the findings from interviews with teachers of Chinese and classroom observations. In Chapter 3, it is recorded that 14 classes that were observed in the five schools visited. In all 59 lessons there was a variety of different working atmospheres with a range of different teaching methods, classroom activities, teacher-pupil interactions, pupils’ participation in the repetition and practice of new characters, games and songs. This section focuses on how teachers teach in practice; findings collected in the classroom observations discover what teachers actually did in their real settings. This will present a clear picture of classroom activities and allow for an examination of the interconnection between what teachers said in interviews and what they actually did in practice. It also helps to reveal whether there was a difference between teachers’ words and actions.

5.4.1 Classroom layout

All the lessons and the two lunch clubs observed were in a traditional classroom layout, with pupils sitting in rows. This allowed the teacher to make eye-contact with all the students, especially if the teacher wanted everyone to feel included. This is the typical classroom layout in nearly all schools in China by which teachers try very hard to ensure that classes are quiet and more easily controlled. Only one lunch club had a lesson in the computer room. It was a big room with lots of space. The teacher was able to take bigger classes without feeling crowded and had space to move easily to work with the pupils on the computers. Each pupil could use one computer independently. They could not see people opposite them, but could discuss or work with people next to them.

5.4.2 Class size

The class size ranged from 6 to 29 and the average class size was about 15. The size varied widely from school to school. There were marked differences in the length of time since schools introduced Mandarin, teaching targets and classroom layout, for example, since Schools A and C were teaching Mandarin for GCSE, their class sizes were smaller than those which just treated it as an enrichment course. Generally, based on my observation findings, in smaller classes, pupils stayed more focused and misbehaved less. They had more direct interaction with teachers and worked more in small groups rather than by themselves.

5.4.3 Resources

The resources of each school visited in this research covered aspects such as the physical environment (e.g. wall decorations and classroom decorations) and facilities (e.g. ICT and multimedia facilities).

In this research, schools were decorated and well equipped, both in the language classrooms and corridors. They displayed Chinese New Year cards made by pupils, their homework e.g. writing, pictures and their handicrafts on the wall in classes, and exhibited more information about Chinese culture through photographs, maps and news in the corridors, with every pupil and member of staff no matter whether they were learning Mandarin or not having the opportunity to know this language and its culture. For example, a school displayed pictures of activities they carried out in the Chinese class in the school corridors such as paper cutting and Chinese Calligraphy (see Pictures 5-1 and 5-1), while in another school, pupils were designing posters with 2008 Beijing Olympic Games' mascots on the computers (see Pictures 5-3 and 5-4). In class, every teacher made and used PowerPoint (PPT). In addition, they used videos and the TV which they brought from China with them, to give pupils a vivid image to help them understand Mandarin and Chinese culture.

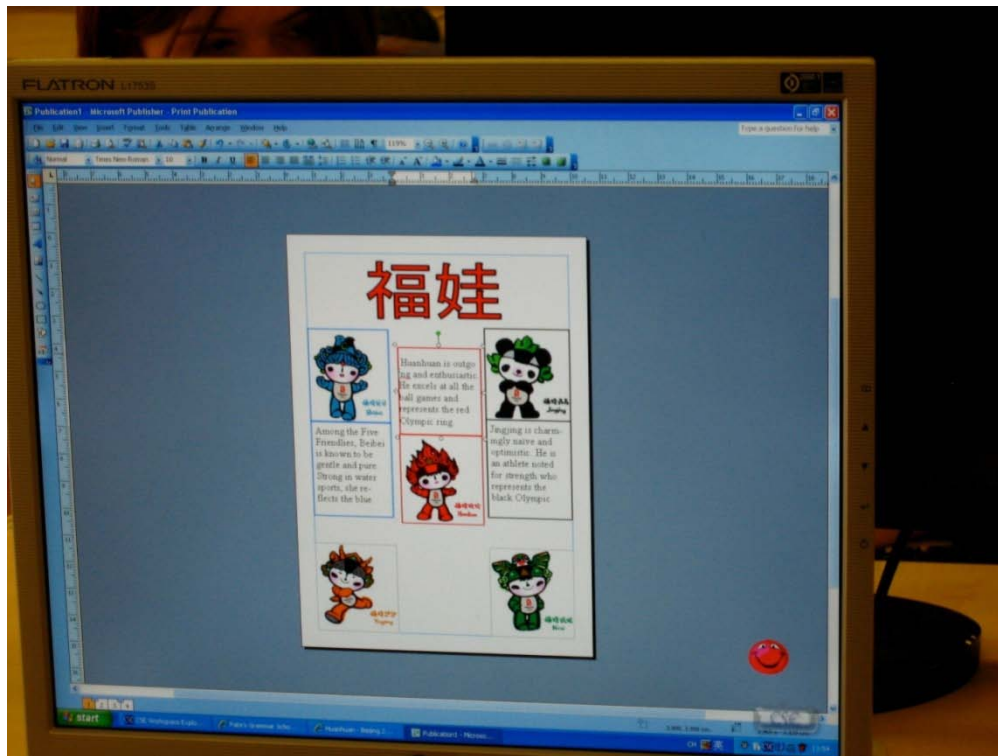
Picture 5-1: Wall decoration



Picture 5-2: Pupils' activities in Chinese classes



Picture 5-3 2008 Beijing Olympic Games' mascots



Picture 5-4: Designing posters with Beijing Olympic Games' mascots



The books for Schools A and C were from the LA, and they designed extra exercises and quizzes to practices the knowledge pupils learnt, which aimed to gain higher achievement in GCSE and A-level exams. In total, only five classes out of 14 in total observed (see section 3.3.3.3) in two schools teaching and learning for GCSE worked with books in classes. For School D and School E, although they said they had books provided by the LA, teachers could not design their teaching plan with them as they thought the books and the material were too hard for the pupils to learn. In School C, even the teacher did not know they had books. In other words, 38.5% classes observed used books, and the remaining classes observed did not use books in classes. Teachers designed content and created teaching materials without a systematic guide.

Table 5.1 Teaching Resources

Classes	School A		School B			School C			School D			School E		
	A 1	A 2	B 1	B2	B3	C 1	C 2	C3	D 1	D 2	D3	E 1	E 2	E3
Textbooks	√	√				√	√	√						
Worksheets	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√			√	√	√	√
Cue cards									√	√	√	√	√	
OHP														
ICT (teacher)	√	√			√		√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
ICT (pupils)														
Cassette	√					√	√	√						
CDROM														
Video player					√		√		√		√			

According to Table 5.1 above, four teachers out of five used worksheets. They designed these by themselves and worksheets were printed from the computer and some of them were handwritten. They used worksheets to help pupils review what had been taught in class. The worksheets were displayed as ‘fill-in-the-blank’ sheets of questions, diagrams or maps to help pupils with their exercises.

Teachers D and E brought Cue Cards from China. The cards had a picture, PinYin and characters written on them to help and remind pupils what they had to say. Teacher A and C did not think cue cards would work well for pupils during GCSE study, as they said:

“We used cue cards at very beginning for beginners. After that, pupils have more practical ways to learn and remember Pinyin and characters. Do not forget they are no longer kids.”(ITA-SA)

The figure above showed that ICT was used quite often in the Mandarin Class, although only teachers adopted it; the white board was the most common resource they employed. Teachers used them to display pictures, characters and videos. In class observations, only teachers in school A and C used cassettes in class. They used it to practice pupils’ speaking, listening and writing skills. This also worked for assessing learners’ listening and writing skills, for example in class C1, every pupil had an assessment form and they listened to a cassette and answered questions. All of their listening and writing was in Chinese:

Cassette: 第一题，小明的新家。里面有洗衣机，电冰箱，微波炉。请问在你的选择里，小明家没有什么。(Number one, Xiaoming has a new house. It has a washing machine, refrigerator, and microwave. Please find out which one is not

included.) There were four choices in the students' paper, these being 洗衣机 (washing machine), 电冰箱 (refrigerator) and 电视机 (television). Pupils needed to tick 电视机 (television) which was not mentioned in the cassette. The whole practice lasted for 15 minutes, with 12 exercises. It aimed to help pupils review the electric equipment they had learnt. As all practice was in Chinese, no English could be found on the pupils' sheets, and the recorded voice from the cassette was slower than normal native speakers speed.

5.4.4 Tutor support system

Teachers in School A and C were full time teachers, working for 20 hours a week and were qualified to work by themselves in the class. According to the observation notes, School B did not provide tutor support for the foreign language assistant's work and left her alone with pupils. If the teacher could not deal with the pupil, she would send him/her to the head of foreign languages department. The pupil would stay with the Head Department for the subsequent lessons until the Head of Department thought he/she could go back to the class. The Head of Department was in the class with the teacher in School D to help her manage pupils. However, in the 3 classes observed, some other MFL teachers came to the class and talked to the head of department randomly. In this case, classes were easily and often interrupted, once a teacher gave a sign such as a wave or smile to the head of department near the door, she had to go to the corridor and talk to other teachers and come back after the conversation. In one class observed, 3 teachers came to talk to the head of department in 50 minutes and 1 in 3 interrupted 3 times intermittently. In School E, a full time tutor was there with the class and helped the teacher control the pupils. She raised her voice and called some

specific pupils' names when the noise went up. The tutor and teacher of Mandarin in School E co-worked well together.

5.4.5 Schemes of work

School A and C were working towards GCSE Mandarin Chinese and had a strict scheme of work for the Mandarin course. Teacher A said 'every lesson is full with teaching and practicing. We have a proper teaching plan as other foreign languages. It is good for our teachers, as we know when and where we need to catch up.' Teachers D and E found that their teaching plan were always delayed. After one term's teaching, they recognized that although they had a teaching plan for the whole school year and individual teaching plans for each lesson which they had designed themselves before they started teaching; all four skills were too hard for pupils to learn. Normally, pupils took more than two classes to learn three characters and felt bored at the end. More than this, in every class, there were some students who had many questions to ask resulting in teachers having to answer their questions first and then go on to the next step. Then, the teachers avoided coaching and practice in the four skills, and diverted their attention to introducing Chinese culture through tales and doing handcrafts.

As mentioned earlier, teacher B did not belong to any organization and had to solve every detailed problem by herself; because of a visa problem, she missed the first seven weeks' teaching in the school. School B found two temporary Mandarin teachers. One was a Chinese PhD student from a university nearby; the other one had some teaching experience in a community Chinese school. According to the interview with Teacher B, because school B did not provide any teaching plan or curriculum for

Mandarin before she started teaching during her teaching period, Teacher B felt lost in her teaching. When she went to discuss this problem with the Head of Department, the Head of Department could not give out any constructive suggestions and asked her to teach basic language that people use in daily life in China. In addition, because traditionally, in China, people in classes were teaching and learning to pass a variety of tests (Yu and Suen 2005), textbooks in China normally cover the majority of the key points in exams which make teachers see textbooks as being vital. Consequently, when the school did not provide any textbooks, Teacher B felt lost and had no idea of what and how to teach. Moreover, before Teacher B arrived there were two temporary teachers who came and taught randomly. All these factors made Teacher B find it very difficult to continue teaching and she had no idea about what the students had learned.

In fact, lack of practical teaching materials was a problem for most of the teachers in the research, but in this particular case there was also no scheme of work to guide teachers as to what work to cover. However, due to the lack of continuity in teaching staff and the fact that nobody took responsibility for collecting relevant resources, many PPTs and handouts made by the teachers who came annually were missed. On the one hand, it costs a lot of time for new teachers to prepare as they are doing similar things year by year. It is hard to be creative in Mandarin teaching. On the other hand, it is difficult to design a systematic curriculum for Mandarin teaching without the practical teaching notes from teachers.

As a teacher, teacher E thought all teachers of Mandarin needed a curriculum. Once teachers have a curriculum, they can have a clearer idea when they are designing a

lesson plan. Particularly for teachers who joined the one year teaching overseas programme who only can stay here for one year, a curriculum would help new teachers continue their teaching and avoid teaching overlapped knowledge to the same group of pupils.

5.4.6 Target language used by the teacher

During language learning, both teachers and pupils attempted to use the target language for all necessary purposes. The target language can be said to be used ‘for real purposes’ when people in the language classroom use it to communicate with each other, even if pupils are not, strictly speaking, fluently.

In all lessons observed (see examples in Appendix 6, 7 and 8), teachers were using Mandarin in greetings at the very beginning of each class. They adopted Chinese greeting between teacher and pupils in class.

Teacher-‘上课!’ (Class begins)

One pupil - ‘起立’ (Stand up)

All pupils stand up

Teacher- ‘同学们好!’ (Good morning/afternoon boys and girls)

Pupils-‘老师好!’ (Good morning/afternoon Miss)

Teacher and pupils gave an inclination of their heads or bodies to each other in some classes.

Besides such basic and simple greetings at the start of every lesson, in Schools A and C, the teachers tried to use as much target language as they could in both practice language and use of language for real purposes, especially in their revision time. After

more than one year's teaching and learning in Mandarin, the teachers had confidence within their pupils, as from their point of view, pupils' learning progress was fast and they knew a lot at the time. When they were introducing new information, the teachers resorted to English at times. They tried to signal the change in advance by telling the pupils in the target language that they were going to speak in English, so that the change-over was better controlled and explicit. In addition, they called teachers '老师' (lao shi) in Mandarin instead of "Miss" in English.

The teacher in School B spoke the target language quite often. This might be because her English was not very good and the vocabulary she knew was limited. In addition, the classes easily got out of control without the necessary tutor support system. She found it hard to continue teaching and nearly gave up eliciting responses from pupils, although she adopted target language frequently, she did not seem to pay attention to whether pupils followed and understood her. They were working as two parts which had no concern with each other. Only when she was with Year 9 pupils who were going to have an ASSET test a couple of weeks later did she use English to present the ASSET exam content and tried to get responses from pupils.

5.4.7 Classroom activities

The discussion in this section is based on the findings displayed in Appendix 6, 7 and 8. It focuses on the variety of activities reported by the teachers and what was observed in the lessons.

The term of activities in this section it regards the regular daily activities provided by the teacher in the Chinese class. Referring to Appendix 6, 7 and 8, all classes were full of different kinds of activities; discussions; drills; games and question and answer (Q-A), which are reported to be the most frequently mentioned activities adopted by teachers of Mandarin Chinese in the lessons observed. The interviews with the teachers support this:

“I try to my best to produce chances for them to talk and organize different activities to motivate them...” (IT-SB)

“Compared to my class in China, here it is much more ‘learner-centered’. I designed many activities and try to involve all of them in learning Chinese...I hope the activities can enhance their motivation in Chinese language learning” (IT-SE)

“You have to design many kinds of classroom activities; games play a very important role in their foreign language teaching. I observed other language lessons, and what I am doing now is following what I observed...” (IT-SD)

“...you know we work for GCSE, both pupils and us under very big pressure. we do not have enough time to play games, all activities we design for classes tend to practice their reading, listening, speaking and writing skills ... I think we are adopting something like communicative language teaching ...” (IT-SC)

The classes observed had a similar lesson structure. They started classes with greeting and registration. After revision of what they have learnt previously, they then went on to new knowledge they were going to learn. From Table 5.1, it is clear that teacher’s in both GCSE and non-GCSE classes tended to work with whole classes in their teaching. Findings revealed that teachers preferred their pupils to talk freely when

they answered questions. This happened most frequently when they reviewed what they had learnt in previous lessons.

Based on Table 6.2, working with the whole class is adopted more frequently than group work and pair work. According to this phenomenon, Teacher B explained that it was because she had difficulties in classroom management:

“...the class size here is much smaller than the one I had in China; however, the students here are really hard to manage. You can see, in these classes, pupils are out of control, I tried grouping them but it was too hard... too hard...”(IT-SB

5.4.8 Classroom practices

In referring to section 2.6.4, considerable research studies on teaching have indicated that teachers’ classroom practices influences teachers’ teaching and learning goals. Teachers would modify their teaching practice to match the goals. This section gives some examples of various kinds of classroom practice in the different school settings in order to consider the factors of teachers’ teaching instructions in this study. The findings were based on the lesson content, balance of skills, balance of interaction, oral expressiveness and frequency of adopting L1 (English) and L2 (Mandarin) in class. Three typical class shapes in this study are shown below.

Table 5.2 Activities/Balance of interaction

	School A		School B			School C			School D			School E		
	A	A	B	B	B	C	C	C	D	D	D	E	E	E
	1	2	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Whole class	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Group									✓		✓	✓		
Pair work	✓	✓										✓	✓	
Individual	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		

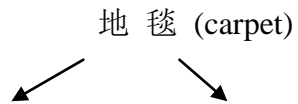
5.4.8.1 GCSE classes

The GCSE classes (refer to Appendix 6) were under good control over the volume of drills of listening, speaking, writing and reading skills practice and playing games. During the whole class, the chairs and desks were arranged in lines in the classroom, as would occur in a typical Chinese language classroom. After a regular greeting, the teacher had a short conversation with pupils in Mandarin. The sentences they used were for example: ‘你昨天做什么了?’ (what did you do yesterday?) ‘今天几点起床?’ (when did you get up in the morning?) ‘昨天的球赛你看了吗?’ (did you watch the football game?) ‘放学后你有什么安排?’ (do you have any plan after school?). As a starter, the teacher did a quick re-run of The Simpson Family previous revision session, in order to bring information and phrases back into everyone’s mind. Pupils answered her questions directly or by checking the notes they had made in the last lesson. At the same time, the teacher was checking pupils’ notes to see if there was

anyone who had not yet written relevant information into their notebooks. If so, the teacher would get them to do it. Then the teacher shared the teaching objectives with the pupils. She wrote new vocabulary on the board and pupils copied the words directly. The teacher introduced occupation vocabulary, by using a PPT where she put pictures with pinyin and characters together. She pronounced new words and explained what they meant. Pupils followed her and tried to pronounce them in a low voice.

The teacher pressed the button of the cassette and encouraged pupils to follow its pronunciation. Pupils found the characters in their textbooks and chorused it sufficiently after a few repetitions. The teacher turned the cassette off, hid the pinyin, and pointed to either picture or character to ask pupils what it meant and how to pronounce it. If the character could make a new word with another character they learnt, the teacher would remind them. For example, 医生 (doctor) is a new word, but pupils learnt 学生 (student) earlier, both have the character 生. The teacher then expanded many words e.g. 学生, 先生 (mister, sir) they learnt from characters in new words e.g. 医生.

The teacher had her own method to help pupils understand and remember a word, for example: carpet 地毯. Pupils can understand 地 as it is used quite often. For 毯, the teacher took apart the structure of the character, and made sure pupils understood its meaning. She made a sentence which described the character's structure and expressed the meaning. Pupils were asked to write down characters in their exercise books, five times each.



On the floor to give you warm, not only 1 fire (火) but 2 (炎) and made of
wool (毛)

After some activities such as ‘read and match game’ (see Appendix 9), the teacher divided pupils into groups of four. Pupils made sentences with new characters and they learnt to introduce their parents’ job and what they wanted to be in the future using Mandarin. Following nearly 10 minutes’ of discussion, pupils were given a few minutes to write sentences down. Finally, there was a plenary question and answer session to check pupils’ learning e.g. Tell me the occupations you know. The teacher did not have any reaction to a pupil who kept raising his hands up but picked another pupil to answer questions.

5.4.8.2 Classes in School B

Mandarin classes in School B started with greetings, as in other schools. However, during the whole class, the only interaction between the teacher and pupils was Q/A drills. The teacher did not design multiple activities to arouse pupils’ interest in learning new characters and the white board was the only facility used in teaching. Pupils followed her questions in the first 10-15 minutes and then they lost patience, as the teacher was speaking in Mandarin most of the class and did not check whether the pupils understood it.

With Year 8 pupils, they were sitting in rows and kept quiet for the first 5 minutes. Then, one pupil (PA) asked a question which was irrelevant to Mandarin study and the teacher ignored him. PA kept asking the same question and then wanted to play with PB, the boy sat in front of him who was looking at the teacher. When PB would not play with PA, he began threatening him with a pencil and harsh language. The teacher called PA's name on several occasions to ask him to sit down and keep quiet, however, PA went back to sit only for a short while, and started challenging PB and other pupils around him again. A common response reprimanded PA for his behaviour and gave him a directive to sit alone away from all pupils. It did not work and he ignored the teacher's words and ran into the classroom. Two other pupils chased him and the class went out of control. Without an effective tutor support system, all the teacher did was stare at PA asking other pupils to go back to their seats and kept teaching as if nothing happened.

In the exercise of making sentences, pupils were asked to introduce themselves one by one. The teacher was patient and corrected their pronunciation carefully with pupils who were giving responses actively or could pronounce better. However, when she went to other pupils, she passed quickly. If pupils could not pronounce words properly, she helped them to make sentences without leaving enough time for them to think. Pupils copied her answer hurriedly, and the teacher went to the next one, even if the previous one had not finished.

Furthermore, based on the situations mentioned above, Teacher B claimed that pupils' behaviour affected her teaching content. In the interview she gave some examples:

“For Year 7 students, they are more interested in learning and their behaviour is better than pupils in Year 8 and Year 9. I am keen to present more knowledge based on what

they learnt. For pupils who are very hard to manage, I did not teach them much. I don't know how to carry on my teaching.” (IT-SB)

5.4.8.3 Classes in Schools D and E

As the observation notes state, it was 09:55 in the morning and 29 pupils in Year 7 had been waiting outside for a couple of minutes. The teacher took 3 minutes to get the class inside the room, settled and to complete registration. As a starter, they were going to see what they already know about food. Following the pictures shown in the PPT, pupils called the food's name. The teacher asked for hands up for each statement and then the whole class chorused the answer together.

After a 7 minute warm up, the teacher engaged in introducing learning objectives: learning new foods, and making sentences: 你(不)喜欢吃/喝什么? 我(不)喜欢吃/喝...What do you (dis)like eating/drinking? I (dis)like + food they learnt. She wrote new words in characters and pinyin onto the board so that pupils could copy them directly. She pointed to the new words, pronounced it, and directed pupils to match the meaning to the pictures shown in the PPT. The teacher also used cue cards to help introduce new words. She repeated this for a few minutes, pointing to characters and asked what they meant in English and then she showed cue cards and asked what they meant in Mandarin. She did this one by one. Once a pupil had answered, she asked the class what the pupils had just said, doing it again if necessary. They then chorused the phrases. The pupils copied the characters and pinyin down in their exercise books. After having learnt the sentence patterns earlier and having the cue cards to help, pupils were asked to make sentences with new words and what they had learnt. They

chorused once more and they wrote them in their books. A few pupils tried to copy characters the teacher had written on the board and most of them made notes in pinyin.

Activity: pupils were asked to interview three classmates about what kind of fruit or drinks they (dis)liked. In the conversation, they needed to use the sentence ‘你喜欢吃/喝...吗?’ (do you like...?) They were given a form to fill in with a tick or a cross. The words in the form were written in pinyin instead of characters. Pupils were walking around the class with the interview form (see Appendix 10) and asked each other the questions. Most of the pupils preferred to adopt English in their conversations. They used English to find out what they liked and disliked and looked for the right words in Chinese to match the sentences. The teacher had to keep her eyes on them, walking around and remind them to practice in Mandarin.

One boy who was sitting next to me was always alone. He had never asked a question and the teacher did not ask him questions either. In the activity, he stood up and moved to a boy and a girl opposite him. He was excited, and tried to interrupt their conversation; however, they just ignored him and kept talking to each other. Then he went to the others, but no one in the class wished to talk to him. He did not do any interviewing and went back to his seat with a blank form sadly. He filled in the form randomly.

After the activity, the teacher asked pupils to make sentences with the answers they got. She asked a girl sitting in the front about ‘how many people did you interview? Who are they? What do they like to eat/drink?’ Then she put the answers together as sentences orally in Mandarin. Pupils then presented the answers they got individually.

Generally, the teacher treated all pupils equally in the Q/A section. She gave chances to all of the pupils who raised their hands; called pupils' names who were absent-minded or shy of sharing their answers with others. The teacher used to ask people on her right hand side first, and sometimes did not turn to pupils on the other side when she asked or repeated answers.

Compared to other pupils, the only Asian girl (I'm not sure whether she is Chinese or not) in the class could make long sentences and spoke fluently. However, her pronunciation was similar to others, and was not a native Mandarin speaker, only in a few words' her pronunciation was better than others.

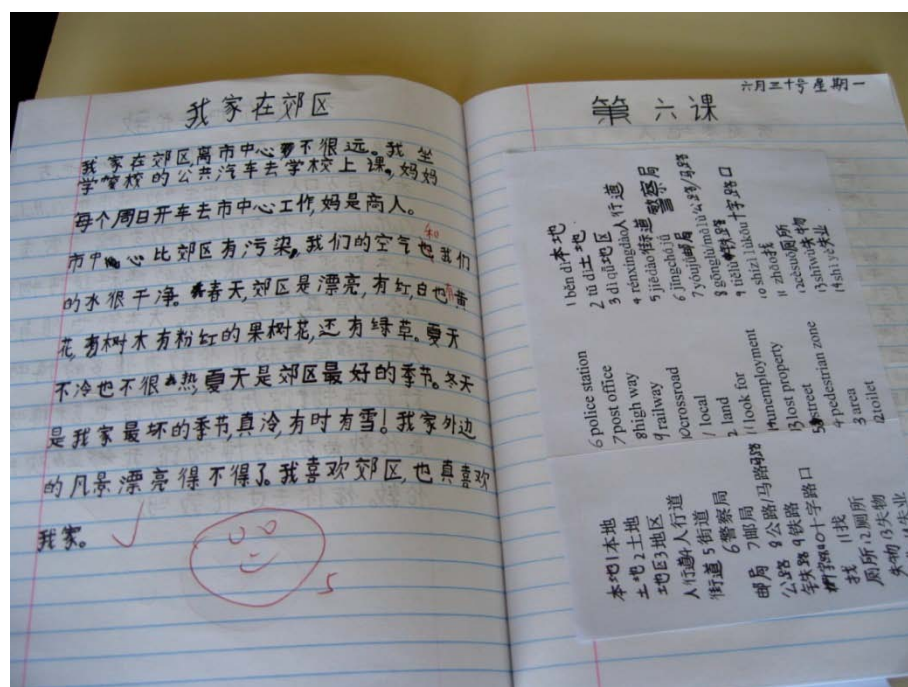
Following the report of answers, pupils were asked to write down a short paragraph about their favourite food in pinyin. They were encouraged to employ all the sentence patterns and vocabulary they learnt. They raised their hands when they had finished and the teacher went to check the work. Some pupils treated this as a kind of competition. They showed passion to be the first one to finish writing and raise their hands. Consequently, when they were writing, some concentrated on making sentences and writing up the work and tried to finish the work as quickly as possible. Nevertheless, a few in the class just stayed there and did not even write when the teacher pushed them.

As a plenary, the teacher ran the PPT again. The whole class chorused phrases of pictures in Mandarin. The teacher then had a short summary of new vocabulary and sentence patterns.

5.4.9 Balance of the language skills

All the participants agreed that it was impossible to emphasise and practise each language skill equally. Teachers A and C admitted that due to the pressure of studying at GCSE level, compared to other language teachers, they focused largely on explanations of grammatical rules. They also considered that writing Chinese characters seemed to be “mission impossible” to a large number of English people. Hence, writing was more strongly emphasised in their classes. For example, both Teachers A and C left their homework to pupils after school (see Pictures 5-5 and 5-6) and writing a dairy in Chinese or making sentences with specific words they learnt was the most common method. In School A, the teacher would draw a smiley face in pupils’ work with a mark 5 if both writing and grammar were correct (see Picture 5-5). Once they had collected 5 smiley faces, they were awarded a present by either their teacher or their parents. Teacher A said she had a deal with the parents, and they were happy to work with her.

Picture: 5-5 Pupil's homework



Picture: 5-6 Writing practices



Teacher C also indicated that all the skills in language learning were important; however she could not emphasise all the skills at the same time and practise each equally. Especially for beginners, listening and speaking skills were more practical and important than reading and writing in teaching and learning.

Teachers B, D and E agreed with Teacher C. They believed that speaking was more strongly emphasised in their teaching, as all the pupils in their classes were at a very early stage of learning Mandarin Chinese. In addition, the final ASSET exams at the end of the school year only tested pupils' oral skill. Even if only testing oral skills, Teacher B and D still worried about their pupils as they claimed:

“...speaking Chinese is hard for them (pupils). They can't remember the pronunciations.”

(IT-SB)

“4 skills are too much for pupils. Listening and speaking are main things in teaching; most of time is simply copying what I am talking. Because they have very few knowledge about Chinese, it is hard for them to create sentences by what they know... I found it is hard to ask them to make sentences by themselves. Their pronunciations are hard to match the standard as well. When I started teaching, it surprised me, however, the Head of Department told me if I ask pupils to achieve standard pronunciations none of them could do it.” (IT-SB)

As a matter of fact, reading and writing skills were not required in Schools B, D and E. In this circumstance, Teachers B, D and E mostly had to consider providing an introductory course in Chinese culture for pupils from a non-Chinese background which was more practical than developing learners' language skills.

5.4.10 Teachers' situation

The teachers were asked about the extent they spoke English in their teaching and living in England. Teachers A and C were generally satisfied with their current situation; they noted that compared to what they had in the past they appreciated all materials and resources they had gained at the time of asking. Teacher B considered that she had language problems in teaching Mandarin Chinese in English. In the interview, teacher B stated that they had communication problems with the head of foreign languages department in the school who was a teacher of German. In the interview, Teacher B said the head of department issued her teaching targets and asked her to adopt the same teaching method they used in the German classes. Teacher B appreciated this when she first arrived, but after a week's observation she found the teaching method for German learning unsuitable for Mandarin classes. After a month's teaching, she felt that both the pupils in her classes and herself were deviating further and further from the target she was given to teach. She tried to communicate with the Head of Department, but Teacher B stubbornly felt that they did not understand her. Teacher B said that when she first arrived as a new teacher, a tutor accompanied her in the classroom, but after less than a month, the tutor left and she had to face all the pupils by herself, posing a big challenge for her.

'My English is not as good as the pupils, and they are very easy to be out of control. I really do not know what I can do. Thank god, I just need to be here for a year...I'm so small, I prefer students who are well behaved...if students who always raise questions I will ignore him... it is hard to feel that students respect me...I think I should be stricter with them...' (IT-SB)

She was not as vigilant in preparing lessons as she first was when she began teaching and during the whole interview her words were full of complaints. She was

dissatisfied with the funding; her living conditions; and her landlord who was one of her colleague with whom she had a poor relationship. In addition, her interview reflected that her understanding of 'strict' was a ferocious facial expression and in order to avoid dealing with pupils' challenges, she chose to ignore them. Her reactions may be due to her limited abilities in teaching; however, the way she treated pupils was against the democratic idea of equality and freedom, it also constrained pupils' needs and rights. This suggests that teachers from China really need to understand the Western education system and adapt their inherent teaching methods to match pupils' needs and show respect to pupils at the mean time.

Communication between schools' practitioners was a challenge for teachers B, D and E. It appeared that the communication in the English education system followed the 'top down' tradition, where one way communication was the major solution to deal with teachers' teaching. In the interviews, teachers stated that normally they only communicated with the Head of MFL Departments who are responsible for their overall teaching. Their communication with other teachers and the head teachers of the school were limited, as a result, the relationship between teachers of Mandarin Chinese and their Heads of MFL Department became very important.

Additionally, all the teachers in this research agreed that a supportive Head Teacher and Head of MFL Department could play an important role in clarifying their job role. Apart from the Head of Department in School B, all the Head Teachers and the Heads of MFL Department seemed to be friendly and supportive to all the teachers of Mandarin Chinese and their managerial style appeared quite flexible and democratic, which allowed teachers' voices to be heard, as one Head of MFL Department said:

“I feel that I have to trust her because I am not a Mandarin Chinese speaker, I do not really understand the concepts of learning the language so I have to trust her, because I cannot guide her. I go to watch the lessons and I maybe make suggestions...” (IHoD-SC)

Most Head Teachers and Heads of MFL Department built up good relationships with teachers of Mandarin by allowing them greater freedom in their jobs whilst providing assistance in their living arrangements when they first arrived. Although some Heads emphasized the importance of parental satisfaction; and funding and enrollment, they all tended to minimize the influence of these issues on their teachers.

Teacher D and E felt that it was easy to communicate with their Heads of Department. It took about a week to familiarize themselves with colleagues’ manner and teaching style and they tried to be involved in the schools’ working environment as soon as they could, however, this was a big barrier for Teacher B. In the interview, she complained that the Head of Department in her school was not that easy to get on with; although the Head Teacher in School B expressed enthusiasm in introducing Mandarin, the Head of Department did not have it. As a result of cultural differences and poor communication between Teacher B and the Head of Department, in some instances, Teacher B’s daily practice was restricted by his dictation of what she should do, thus neglecting her actual needs when she was teaching.

For all of the teachers involved in this research, the understanding and support received from all levels including national level, local level and school level greatly influenced teachers behaviors and beliefs at a practical level where daily teaching and learning practice is shaped by policy and curriculum understanding; supports; training and their own practice.

5.4.11 Gender groups in language learning

The majority of the students in Teacher A's class at the time of the study were boys and the top student in Mandarin is also a boy. From Teacher A's point of view, boys find it is easier to face their mistakes especially in pronunciation compared with girls, however, based on her experience, Teacher C believes that girls are significantly more intrinsically motivated than boys who scored poorly on this factor. She pointed out that girls were more inclined to put effort into work that appeared tedious; results again emerged regarding the area of meta-cognitive strategies. Girls have good planning; goal-setting; self-evaluation; and personal strategies when they are studying. For the group which was hard to manage in School D, Head of Department D passed comment on the group:

“they are an all boy group, they are quite weak ability, and they are not bright ability students...”(IHoD-SD)

She thought that for those students who found language learning quite difficult and were not certain about broadening their knowledge about different cultures, the school still offered language course for them but Head of Department D herself had to stay in the room and help Teacher D control their behaviour.

Conclusion

This chapter has analysed the findings from the interviews conducted with the teachers of Mandarin Chinese and classroom observations. The findings presented in

this chapter provide clear and detailed evidence of teachers and pupils' daily practice. It explored how people teach from four main perspectives: teachers' professional development; teachers' goals of teaching; teaching materials and a detailed analysis of issues involved in teaching. Based on my observations of these 14 classes within 59 lessons in total, the classes were grouped according to three types in data analysis: classes in Schools A and C who were doing Chinese GCSE; classes in School B as the teacher's situation was rather different from others (see section 3.3.3.2a) and classes in Schools D and E as Teachers D and E were recruited from similar channel and their situations in schools in England were like each other as well. From the data analysis, it is noteworthy that there is a difference between teachers, teachers' teaching environment and teaching methods. Broadly speaking, these differences were affected by their different teaching goals. Based on the picture of schools and teachers, the next chapter will present the research findings that emerged from pupils' questionnaires surveys.

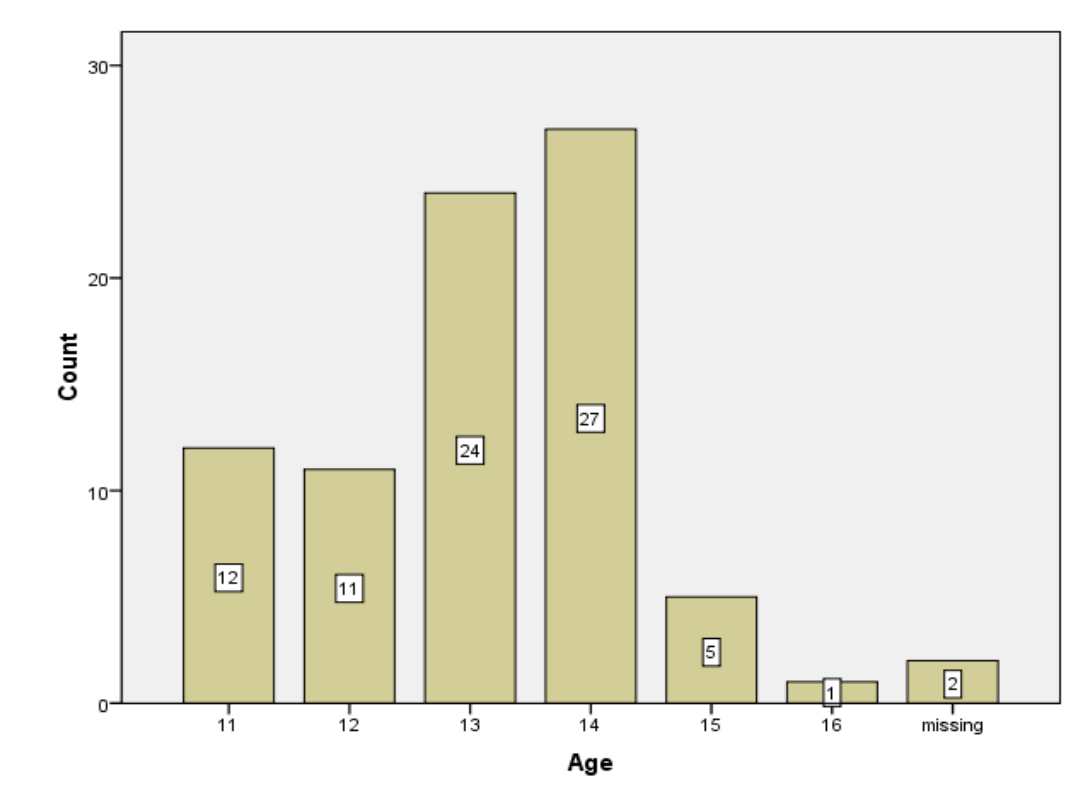
Chapter 6 Pupils' feedbacks on learning Mandarin Chinese in a sample of schools in an English educational context

Introduction

This chapter seeks to address a research sub-question: *what are pupils' views about teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese?* A questionnaire survey (see appendix 4) was adopted in order to investigate pupils' attitudes and to gain feedback on their learning experiences of Mandarin Chinese in a sample of secondary schools in an English educational context which highlighted that Pupils' learning experiences differed throughout the range of schools in this research which introduced Mandarin Chinese in different year groups and at different times. Pupils were given a questionnaire including both closed and open-ended questions to establish their points of view and valid data was gained from 82 pupils. The sample consisted of pupils aged between 11 and 16-years-old at the time of the survey. Graph 5-1 clearly shows that 62% of participants were in the age range 13 (24) and 14 (27). It also indicates that the number of pupils from KS3 was much higher than pupils from KS4. More specifically, in Schools A and C, the pupils were in Year 9 and 10 and working towards their GCSE and A-level examinations. At Schools B, D and E, pupils were in Years 7, 8, 9 and 10. They were testing and piloting the Asset Languages assessment

scheme at the end of the school year. Quantitative data from closed questions was analyzed with the support of SPSS and qualitative data from open-ended questions and free comments was analyzed manually by the researcher. The data gained from the questionnaire are presented first and it is then interpreted and explained.

Graph 6.1 Pupils' Age



This chapter provides an introduction to the participants' background information, which includes their age and the language(s) spoken at home. Following the respondents' answers to the questions, it then covers the participants' learning experiences and perceptions of learning Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language.

6.1 Pupils' background information

School A is a selective grammar school; most of its pupils are from advantaged social backgrounds, as its Head of MFL Department noted:

'Our students have high achievement. Only few of our pupils are from minority ethnic social backgrounds. Most of the people have English as their first language. The proportion of students entitled to free school meals is well below the national average. The vast majority of students in Year 11 continue their study in the school's sixth form and move on to higher education.' (IHoD-SA)

'The number of pupils from families with higher education and good income is high. Parents have high expectations on their children.' (IHoD-SA)

In School B, pupils lived within two miles and from various family backgrounds; in the interview, the Head teacher said:

'This school is small, but people are from complicated circumstances – very different social backgrounds. More than half of pupil's attainment is below average. Some students have learning difficulties and disabilities, or a statement of special educational needs. The number is above the national average. Some parents don't even get their children prepared ready for school. Nearly half of the students come from high deprivation families with less experience of higher education, which may not have furniture at home. Lots of single parents. Yes, many of our children's families are unemployed – in terms of expectation this is low. Of course, we also have people who are well off, we need to meet all those people's needs.' (IHT-SB)

School C is a boarding and day school for girls; pupils are from different countries and with high achievement. Its Head of MFL Department noted thus:

‘School C is a Christian school, but we don’t have special skills or religious requirements. The pupils join us from a wide range of backgrounds and school, and we welcome them wherever they come from. Now, we have girls from Asia, Europe, North and South America and Africa.’ (IHoD-SC)

‘School C has to manage the parents’ expectations as much as the girls. Nearly all come as a result of a personal recommendation and in their parents’ knowledge that our stability and continuing tradition of excellence is an investment in their daughters’ future, perhaps the best investment they can make.’ (IHoD-SC)

School D is located in an area of high social deprivation, as the Head of MFL Department explained:

‘Half of the students are from the local area, however, there are fewer of them entitled to free meals than in most schools. A part of our students come from a minority ethnic group, about one in twelve of them. Most of them are not speaking English at home.’
(IHoD-SD)

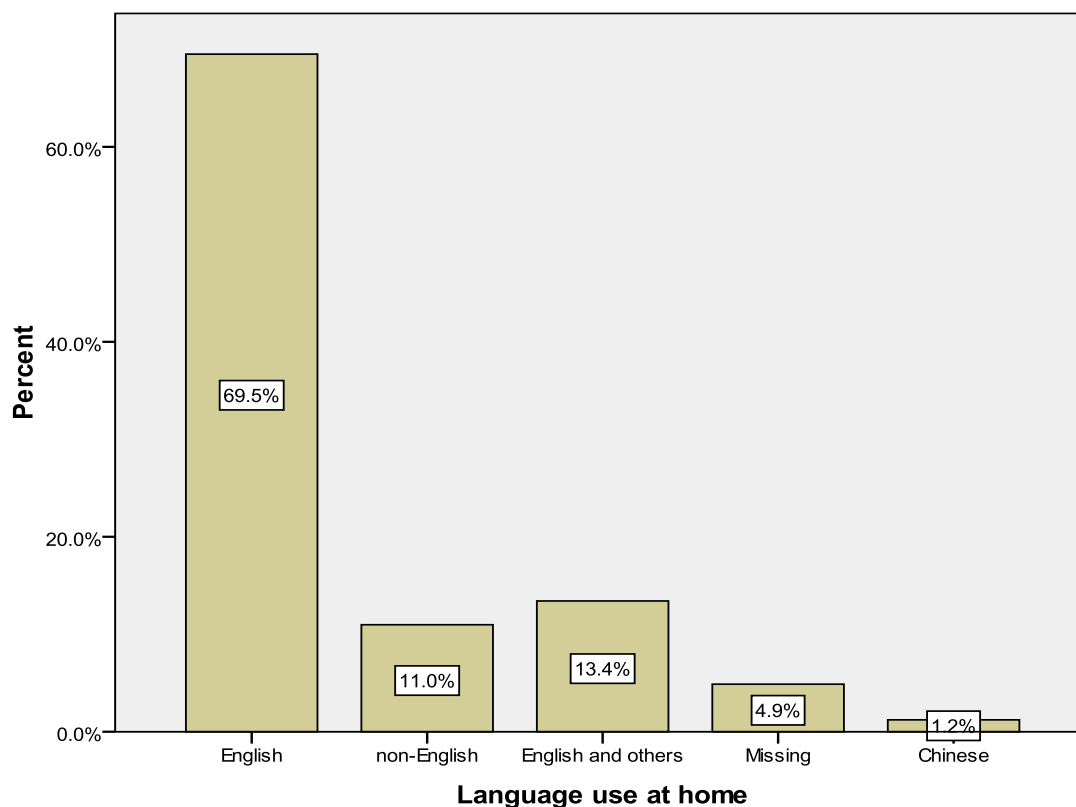
‘Students’ attainments are broadly average when they start at the school. Some of them have specific learning difficulties, and disabilities. However, it is a community college; we have to meet the needs of this community.’ (IHoD-SD)

School E is a popular school in the local area; it is bigger than most secondary schools and its Head Teacher spoke as such:

“We have a large number of students. Most of them are white British backgrounds. The percentage of the students eligible for free meals is well below the national average at this school, as well as, the number of students with learning difficulties and disability or any other special educational needs is lower than the national average. The students gained high achievement than other schools around.” (IHT-SD)

Pupils' responses to question 3, which is about the language they used at home, echoed what the Head Teachers and Heads of MFL Department reported in interviews. As Graph 6.2 illustrates, only 1.2% (2) of participants spoke Chinese at home. One wrote 'Chinese' as the language she used at home (Q-A14-SD-N35), while the other put that she uses 'both Chinese and English' at home (Q-A15-SE-N52). There were two pupils from families speaking Cantonese, a dialect used widely in south China, e.g. in Hong Kong and Guangdong province. As one pupil wrote "I started learning Mandarin when I was 5, I kind of know it" (Q-A14-SB-N53) and another commented "Cantonese is my mother's tongue, I started learning Mandarin 3 years ago" (Q-A13-SD-N22). The majority of pupils were from families where English was their first language. 13.4% pupils, meanwhile, use other languages aswell as English in the home. The 'other languages' include Thai, Russian, Gujarati, German, Yoruba, Korean, Urdu, French, Punjabi, Polish and Italian.

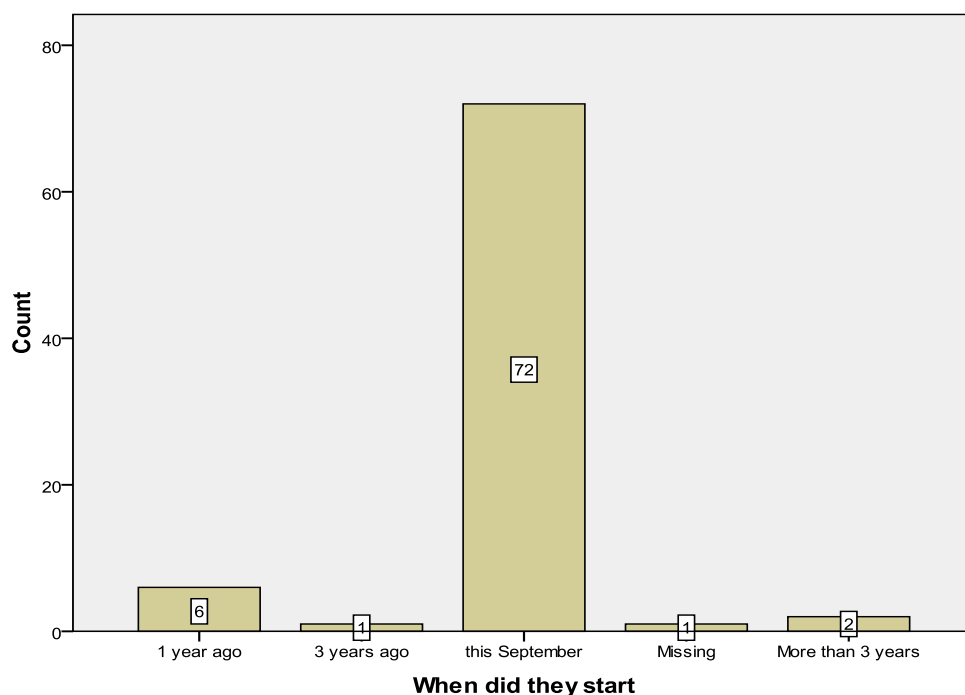
Graph 6.2 Languages pupils use at home



6.2 When did pupils start learning Mandarin?

Question 5 asked ‘When did you start learning Mandarin?’ As Graph 6.3 illustrates, approximately 88% of pupils had only started learning from that school year (2007-2008). They were beginners and only had a couple of months’ learning experience whilst 6 pupils had 1 year’s learning experience. Referring to the comments they made, it may be seen that they attended Mandarin lunch club in the last school year and joined Mandarin Chinese lessons in the 2007-2008 school year. Only 3 pupils had three years or more of Mandarin Chinese learning experiences and 1 pupil left the answer blank.

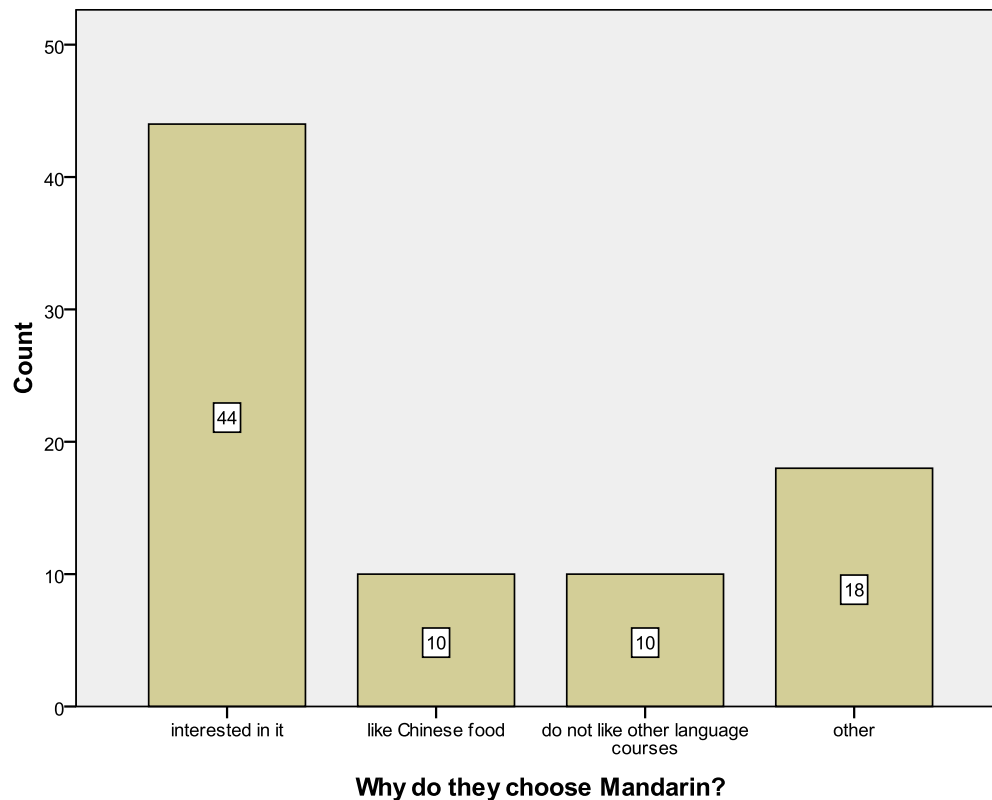
Graph 6.3 When pupils started learning Mandarin



6.3 Why did you choose Mandarin?

Question 9 investigates why pupils chose to study Mandarin Chinese. As Graph 6.4 reveals just over half of the participants (44) indicated that the reason they chose Mandarin was because they were '*interested in it*', while a small percentage (12%) of participants mentioned that they '*like[d] Chinese food*', and the same percentage of pupils claimed that they '*do not like other language course*'. In addition, 22% did not choose the abovementioned statements, but ticked the statement 'other' and left comments to display their motivation. Pupils' comments showed that although they chose 'other', 'interest' is still the main reason that led pupils to choose Mandarin but with different focuses; it seems that those pupils treat linguistic study and language classes separate from other issues in language learning. They explained that what they were interested in was not the Mandarin language or Mandarin course, but its culture, arts and technology.

Graph 6.4 Why do you choose Mandarin?



Many pupils left a comment in relation to this question; it is not possible, and indeed may be unnecessary, to display all the quotations from participants, although these data represent their points of view. Pupils showed their enthusiasm in learning foreign languages:

- I love languages and it is extremely useful. (Q-A16-SA-N02)
- I have always wanted to learn Chinese and maybe even to live in China. (Q-A14-SA-N03)
- I speak Spanish and English and if I learned Chinese, I would speak the three most spoken languages. (Q-A14-SC-N41)

As well as this, some wanted to try something different to what they had done in the past. They believed that Chinese was different to other subjects.

- It is a new experience; I would like to try it. (Q-A14-SB-N65)
- I wanted to learn something different. (Q-A12-SE-N76)

Some participants believed that because of the increased strength of the Chinese economy, Chinese would be used more widely around the world and learning Chinese may help with career development in the future. Their focuses were the pragmatic concerns of obtaining lucrative employment:

- This country is important in the developing world. (Q-A14-SD-N25)
- It is good for jobs.” (Q-A13-SC-N27)
- It is a widely spoken language all over the world. (Q-A14-SD-N29)
- It is a very useful in the future; China is the country of the future. (Q-A14-SC-N38)
- It is a very important language now. Also, everyone at my old school studies Chinese, so I can practice. (Q-A13-SC-N46)
- I want to become a games designer, and supposedly Chinese and Japanese are the best. (Q-A13-SB-N57)

A few participants mentioned specific issues related to China which attracted their attention:

- I love Chinese actors. (Q-A13-SB-N73)
- Chinese technology is interesting. (Q-A13-SE-N81)

Pupil’s family background and social life could also affect their choice.

- As a Chinese person, I can learn to read and write in Chinese. (Q-A13-SD-N22)
- I have a Chinese friend and she has taught me some Chinese. (Q-A13-SD-N24)
- I am part Chinese. (Q-A13-SC-N44)
- I live near China. (Q-A14-SE-N77)

Two participants did not seem to choose Mandarin because of their self-motivation. As Q-A12-SA-N05 wrote, ‘We had to’, without giving more detailed information; meanwhile, Q-A14-SC-N32 wrote, ‘My parents keen for me to do it.’ Furthermore, a small number of pupils indicated that they were tired of learning other European languages and that the schools asked them to choose a foreign language to learn. Under these circumstances, they chose Mandarin.

- Because I got bored of German. (Q-A12-SB-N60)
- I don’t like learning French, and I wanted to try something new. (Q-A14-SB-N67)

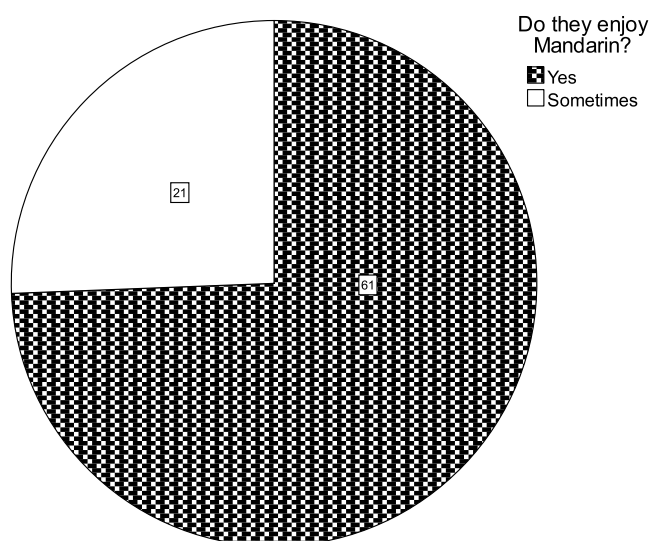
Above all, from the positive attitudes of pupils, in an English context to learning Mandarin, they found it to be a different and interesting language, as compared to other Latin based languages they had learnt before. Based on their comments, 14 participants showed that they loved learning languages, while 9 of them understood that in such a globalized community, learning Mandarin would provide more opportunities in their career development in their future. For some pupils, a local Chinese takeaway and restaurants are shortcuts and the easiest way for them to know something about China, hence, Chinese food becoming an element which aroused pupils’ interest in getting to know more Chinese and its culture. From the pupils’ comments, it is easy to find out that they learnt it not because they are ‘interested in it’, but their parents suggested they should do it, as it is a widely used language in the world, or they have to do it as part of their curriculum in school. It is interesting to see that as a consequence of being tired of learning other languages such as French and German, they chose Mandarin which is a new member of the MFL family.

6.4 Do pupils enjoy their Mandarin class?

The 6th question is ‘do you enjoy your Mandarin class?’ It was surprising to discover the answers from the pupils in an English educational context. They held positive attitudes to this question, although today, in general, people’s attitudes to learning modern foreign languages in England remain poor, especially after language learning stopped being compulsory in 2004 and the percentage rate of take up of language classes has fallen sharply as a result (Han and Lund 2010).

In this question, there were three options for pupils to choose: Yes, No and Sometimes. About 61% (51) of participants agreed that they enjoyed their Mandarin class and 39% (21) somewhat agreed with it (see Graph 6.5) whilst nobody gave any negative feedback.

Graph 6.5 Do pupils enjoy their Mandarin class?



Apart from the close-ended question, many participants posted comments to this question. Pupils continued to have positive attitudes to learning Mandarin Chinese and

mentioned the notion of ‘difference’ when they were describing their learning experience.

- It is very interesting to learn a completely different language. (Q-A14-SA-N07)
- Always interested in it being different from Latin based languages. (Q-A14-SC-N38)

Participants also listed the issues they enjoyed in their Mandarin classes:

- I always enjoy learning new words, so it is a good thing for me. (Q-A13-SD-N24)
- I have never learned and the symbols are beautiful. (Q-A14-SC-N41)
- We do all sorts of activities. (Q-A14-SC-N43)
- My teacher is very good at teaching. (Q-A13-SE-N80)

They also gave their best wishes to the Mandarin class:

- I hope this lesson goes on for longer because I enjoy it 100%. (Q-A11-SD-N20)

Only one pupil (Q-A11-SD-N15) believed that learning Mandarin would help him learn another foreign language, and another (Q-A12-SB-N55) wished to visit China one day – ‘Because I am more likely to go to China than Germany and it is fun’.

Participants specified a situation when they sometimes dislike learning Mandarin. ‘Hard’ can be treated as the word which is represented the most frequently in collected data. Pupils only enjoyed learning before they found it was getting harder.

- If it gets really hard, I don’t enjoy it. (Q-A15-SA-N04)
- I enjoy it most of the time, but when it is too hard, I don’t enjoy it. (Q-A14 -SC-N49)
- I found it is hard to learn. (Q-A14-SC-N36)

A group of pupils explained the reason that led them to feel that the Mandarin class was no longer enjoyable and that the learning progress was becoming harder, as they could not understand it.

- Because I don't really understand it, so, when I don't understand it, I don't enjoy it.

(Q-A14-SB-N66)

- Sometimes it is confusing and hard. (Q-A13-SB-N67)
- Sometimes I cannot understand, even when the teacher is speaking English. (Q-A11-SE-N78)
- Most of the time, it can be annoying when I don't understand. (Q-A14-SD-N25)

Moreover, Q-A11-SD-N19 complained that she liked Chinese, but sometimes, the Mandarin class was boring, as well as Q-A15-SA-N03 thought his Mandarin class was repetitive which made it lack interest. Furthermore, Q-A13-SB-N73's comment showed 'learning is not always enjoyable, no matter what happens'.

The quotations above integrate pupils' points of view about the reasons they like and dislike their Mandarin Chinese classes. Based on their answers and comments we can draw the conclusion that Mandarin classes are favored by the most of pupils. However, for pupils who sometimes enjoy the Mandarin class, they only enjoyed it when the learning process was easy to follow and the class was fun. Meanwhile, they lost enthusiasm and patience when learning became more difficult. There were also a small percentage of pupils (6%) who thought that Mandarin Chinese classes were sometimes boring. The reasons for defining the class as 'boring' were not explained clearly in their comments. However, the following questions about their attitudes towards teachers' teaching and classroom activities helped us to further identify these.

6.5 Do you like your Mandarin teacher?

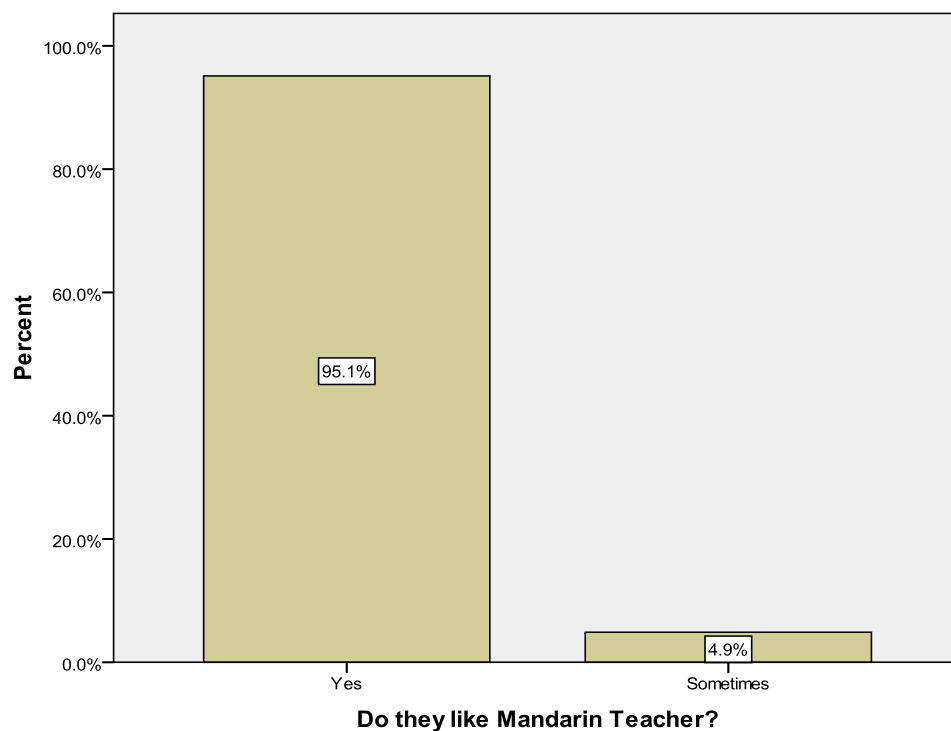
When participants were asked to rate their attitude towards their Mandarin Chinese teacher, as Graph 6.6 shows, the majority of them (95.1%) had a positive attitude to this question. As they considered:

- She makes us work hard. (Q-A15-SA-N01)
- She is very supportive. (Q-A14-SA-N03)
- She is funny, and makes us feel welcome in the Chinese lesson every time we are with her. (Q-A11-SC-N20)
- She is friendly and has various different ways of teaching and is also organized. (Q-A14-SC-N32)
- She speaks English well. (Q-A14-SC-N42)
- She is not strict. (Q-A14-SB-N72)
- She is cool. (Q-A12-SD-N79)

There was also a small percentage (4.9%) of participants who somewhat liked their teacher of Mandarin Chinese and nobody claimed that they did not like their teacher. These data representing pupils' point of views help us to look more closely at the factors that affect pupils' attitudes towards their teacher:

- She pushed a lot. (Q-A13-SD-N24)
- Sometimes she can be strict and not answer questions. (Q-A14-SC-N30)
- Sometimes she can be a bit inconsiderate. (Q-A15-SC-N31)
- She makes it easy to understand, but when she goes mad she only speaks in Mandarin and I don't understand her. (Q-A14-SB-N66)

Graph 6.6 Do you like Mandarin teacher?



From the quotations above, in the pupils' opinions, we may see that in all five schools within this research, pupils generally liked their Mandarin teacher. Most of the comments they wrote showed that they had a positive attitude. However, some pupils who ticked 'yes' in this question also left comments which showed that they were dissatisfied with their teacher. A small number of pupils (6) in School C, in particular, claimed that their teacher taught too fast, and pushed them too much. They also thought that their teacher was too strict sometimes, and was not able to promote interaction with them, for example, they ignored pupils' questions when she was catching up on her teaching plan in class. 5 pupils in School B mentioned that their teacher lacked emotional stability at times; once this happened, Teacher B could only speak in Mandarin. According to the pupils, there was frustration with those that did not take part in the lesson or did not stay on topic.

6.6 What do pupils usually do during the Mandarin lesson?

Question 10, 11 and 13 had multiple choice answers, which means that every question consists of a set of answers. More than one answer can be keyed as the participant's option. In SPSS however, only one answer can be filled in one cell. Therefore, the data gained from these questions has been analyzed manually.

Question 10 examines what pupils usually do during the Mandarin lesson. The options include 4 basic language learning skills: listening, reading, writing and speaking; classroom activities run by: peer work, group work and whole class work; and whether they use ICT and drama during the teaching and learning process. As with other questions, there was an option for 'other' and space for pupils to leave free comments.

Table 6.1 What pupils usually do during the Mandarin lesson

		School A	School B	School C	School D	School E	Total
Listening	Count	11	13	22	10	12	68
	% within schools	91.7%	86.7%	100%	62.5%	70.6%	82.9%
Reading	Count	12	8	22	4	10	56
	% within schools	100%	53.3%	100%	25%	58.8%	68.3%
Writing	Count	12	13	19	8	13	65
	% within schools	100%	86.7%	86.3%	50%	76.5%	79.2%
Speaking	Count	12	14	20	10	12	68
	% within schools	100%	93.3%	90.9%	62.5%	70.6%	82.9%
Pair work	Count	11	0	13	2	3	30
	% within schools	91.7%	.0%	59.1%	12.5%	17.6%	36.6%
Group Work	Count	10	1	12	8	4	37
	% within schools	83.3%	6.7%	54.5%	50%	23.5%	45.1%
Whole class work	Count	10	6	17	7	8	48
	% within schools	83.3%	40%	77.2%	43.8%	47.1%	58.5%
ICT	Count	9	0	6	0	0	15
	% within schools	75%	.0%	27.2%	.0%	.0%	18.3%
Drama	Count	0	0	4	1	0	5
	% within schools	.0%	.0%	18.1%	6.25%	.0%	6.1%
Others	Count	0	0	0	2	0	2
	% within schools	.0%	.0%	.0%	12.5%	.0%	2.4%

The data analysis revealed some differences between the schools. Table 6.1 shows pupils' views of what they were doing during the Mandarin lesson. In general, compared to *reading* (68.3%) and *writing* (79.2%); pupils engaged more practically in *listening* (82.9%) and *speaking* (82.9%) skills. This is clearer if we look in depth about pupils in each school's reaction to this question. Pupils in School A and C, which work towards Mandarin GCSE, had more comprehensive and equal training in all four skills than pupils in School B, D and E who were working for the ASSET tests. In particular in *reading*, 100% of respondents from School A and C considered that they experienced *reading* during the Mandarin lesson, whereas, only just over half of participants thought they did *reading* during Mandarin class in School B (53.3%) and E (55.8%). Only a quarter of pupils in School D had relevant practice. Some pupils left comments for this question which will help us to investigate pupils' reaction in greater depth:

- Listening is too fast. (Q-A14-SA-N03)
- We listen to the teacher, read the words, write it down and say the words. (Q-A13-SD-N23)
- Listening and repeating. (Q-A14-SD-N25)
- Do a bit of everything most lessons, less speaking though. (Q-A14-SC-N32)
- We speak and write as a class. (Q-A11-SB-N56)
- We do lots of class work; I think we enjoy the speaking. (Q-A13-SB-N61)
- We mainly do speaking and listening. (Q-A13-SE-N67)

Furthermore, the findings of the most common type of classroom activities for all five schools are statistically presented as below – more than half of respondents had never experienced *pair work* (36.6%) and *group work* (45.1%); over half of respondents had experienced *whole class work* (58.5%). There are small percentages of both *pair work* (.0%) and *group work* (6.7%) in School B and less than half of participants had

experienced *whole class work* (40%). The statistical presentation made the mode of Mandarin class in School B look more like a teacher-centered than a student-centered class. Data from pupils' free comments may prove this situation in detail:

- We don't do peer work. (Q-A11-SD-N19)
- A lot of whole class work, a bit too much. (Q-A14-SB-N51)

ICT was not adopted widely in the Mandarin Chinese classes; the vast majority of respondents (81.7%) in this survey had never experienced it. No respondents in School B, D and E indicated that their teachers of Mandarin had employed ICT during the teaching process. Moreover, over one quarter of respondents (27.5%) in School C and three quarters of pupils in School A acknowledged that they had experienced methods and applications involved in ICT during their Mandarin lesson. There was a significant difference between pupils' and teachers' answers about ICT which also needs to be considered. As presented in the last chapter, in teachers' interviews, all five teachers of Mandarin indicated that they were using PPT, DVDs or a cassette machine during their teaching. In classroom observations, it was true that all five teachers of Mandarin adopted at least one of the digital or non-digital electrical appliances in class mentioned above. Hence, when the researcher reviewed this problem, she found that it might be due to people having different definitions of ICT, or pupils probably considering the use of ICT as being when they use it themselves. If the question had been displayed with examples, this may have helped to reduce or avoid pupils' misunderstanding of what the question was asking.

Table 6.1 also illustrates that only a minority of pupils had the experience of learning Mandarin through *drama*. The findings indicated that all of the pupils in School A, B and E claimed never to have experienced the use of drama as a method or tool to help

their Mandarin learning. Additionally, over one tenth of pupils in School C (18.1%) and a tiny percentage in School D (6.25%) thought they had taken *drama* in their Mandarin learning.

Besides the set of options in this question, pupils also mentioned other activities that they usually undertook during the Mandarin lessons:

- Sing useful songs. (Q-A11-SD-N15)
- We do a very wide variety of work, including some role-play. (Q-A14-SC-N45)
- Writing, speaking, also games. (Q-A13-SE-N74)

6.7 What do you like most and least about learning Mandarin?

Questions 11 and 13 investigated what pupils liked most and least about learning Mandarin. Generally, the data analysis revealed that nearly half of the pupils enjoyed *speaking* (45.1%) and *Chinese characters* (42.7%) most (see Table 6.2). Like Q-A14 - SC-N49, 7 pupils found compared to other aspects, ‘speaking is the easiest, so enjoy it the most’. They looked forward to going to China and felt it would be very exciting if they could speak Chinese and have conversations with people there.

- I really want to go to China and speak Chinese. (Q-A13-SD-N24)
- It (speak) would be nice for when I go to 中国 (China). (Q-A14-SD-N29)
- It’s interesting and exciting to be able to have a conversation. (Q-A14-SC-N41)

Pupils showed their interests in Chinese characters. Writing characters is much more like drawing than writing for them; they enjoyed the learning process.

- When you learn how to write; Chinese characters look really beautiful and make you feel satisfied. (Q-A14 -SD-N28)
- It (Chinese characters) is funny and interesting. (Q-A14 -SC-N38)

Table 6.2 What pupils like most about learning Mandarin

Pronunciations	13.4%	Speaking	45.1%
Chinese characters	42.7%	Reading	18.3%
Writing	28%	Teacher's teaching Method	13.4%
Mandarin teacher	31.7%	Listening	11%
Chinese stories	36.6%	Other	4.9%

Table 6.3 What pupils like least about learning Mandarin

Pronunciations	22%	Speaking	15.9%
Chinese characters	22%	Reading	9.8%
Writing	29.3%	Teacher's teaching Method	8.5%
Mandarin teacher	6.1%	Listening	.0%
Chinese stories	10%	Other	6.1%

Likewise, almost one third (29.3%) of pupils acknowledged that they felt that *writing* was the least enjoyable part of learning Mandarin (see Table 6.3); some of the respondents gave reasons to support their choices as follows-

- They are sort of hard to remember. (Q-A13-SD-N24)
- I am terrible at remembering the characters. (Q-A14-SD-N29)
- Because we write all the time. (Q-A13-SB-N64)
- Hard to write symbols. (Q-A13-SE-N69)

Another two participants expressed the fact that only when they could handle writing characters would they enjoy it.

- I need to improve my writing, and since it's not good, I don't like it. (Q-A13-SC-N46)
- If you know how to write them they are fun. (Q-A14 -SB-N51)

From the pupils' comments, as mentioned above, it is clear that the reasons pupils liked *speaking* were that they found that compared to other favourite aspects, *speaking* was the 'easiest' part of learning Mandarin. They also felt it could be very 'exciting' and 'interesting' if they could have conversations with others in Chinese, particularly for pupils who were looking forward to going to China in the future. They shared similar reasons as to why they loved *Chinese characters*; stating that characters were 'different' and that it would be 'cool' if they were to write them. *Writing* is the aspect they liked least when learning Mandarin. The most common reason for not enjoying writing was that 'it is hard'. It is hard to write and hard to remember how to write. However, Table 6.2 shows that nearly one third (28%) of pupils liked *writing*. After analyzing the pupils' backgrounds, most pupils who chose liking writing were beginners, who wrote pinyin instead of characters, and they did not work under the pressures of exams. Most of them followed and copied what the teachers had written and did not have to remember them after the lesson, which sounds more like having fun than doing actual learning. Once they recognized that the learning was getting harder and that they needed to pass tests, their enthusiasm about *writing* decreased.

Aside from the *speaking* and *Chinese characters*, more than one third of pupils liked the *Mandarin teacher* (31.7%) and *Chinese stories* (36.6%); and more than one tenth chose *pronunciation* (13.4%), *reading* (18.3%), *teachers' teaching methods* (13.4%) and *listening* (11%). The following comments represent their point of view:

- The way that after you have learnt something it is really good. (Q-A14-SD-N25)

- My teacher is funny and I like the clothes she wears. (Q-A14-SB-N60)
- I like the Mandarin teacher because she is funny, and I like Chinese stories. (Q-A13-SB-N64)

Above all, pupils appreciated that learning Mandarin was a new language and provided them with an opportunity to learn something different from other European languages e.g. *pronunciations* and *characters*. It also helped them to understand a new language and its culture, which really excited them.

The result displayed in Table 6.3 revealed that nearly one quarter of pupils did not like *pronunciation* (22%) and *Chinese characters* (22%).

- Pronunciation is hard and you have to learn it. (Q-A13-SD-N27)
- It (pronunciation) is very difficult. (Q-A14-SD-N28)
- It is sometimes hard to pronounce the words. (Q-A14-SD-N29)
- They (pronunciation and characters) are very hard and similar. (Q-A14-SC-N40)
- Sometimes I find it hard to distinguish between the character s' pronunciations. (Q-A14-SC-N45)

More than one tenth (15.9%) of respondents indicated that they did not like *speaking*, one tenth acknowledged that they did not enjoy Chinese stories whilst smaller percentage claimed they did not enjoy reading (9.8%), teacher's teaching methods (8.5%) and their Mandarin teacher (6.1%). According to these three aspects, pupils' comments were directed more towards *Chinese characters* and *teachers' teaching methods*. As for the Chinese characters, all pupils who left comments felt that it was too hard to learn, remember and to write.

- They (characters) are hard to memorize. (Q-A11-SD-N15)
- Some words are really hard to learn. (Q-A13-SC-N44)
- Because I can't write characters. (Q-A12-SB-N60)
- I get confused. (Q-A14-SB-N67)

According to teacher's teaching methods, pupils particularly emphasized that teachers had too many repetitions in class and that this left less time for them to learn.

- It can get a bit repetitive, and therefore boring. (Q-A15-SA-N01)
- Repetitions, and have to learn a lot under a small amount of time.(Q-A14-SC-N30)
- It is too repetitive. (Q-A14-SB-N51)

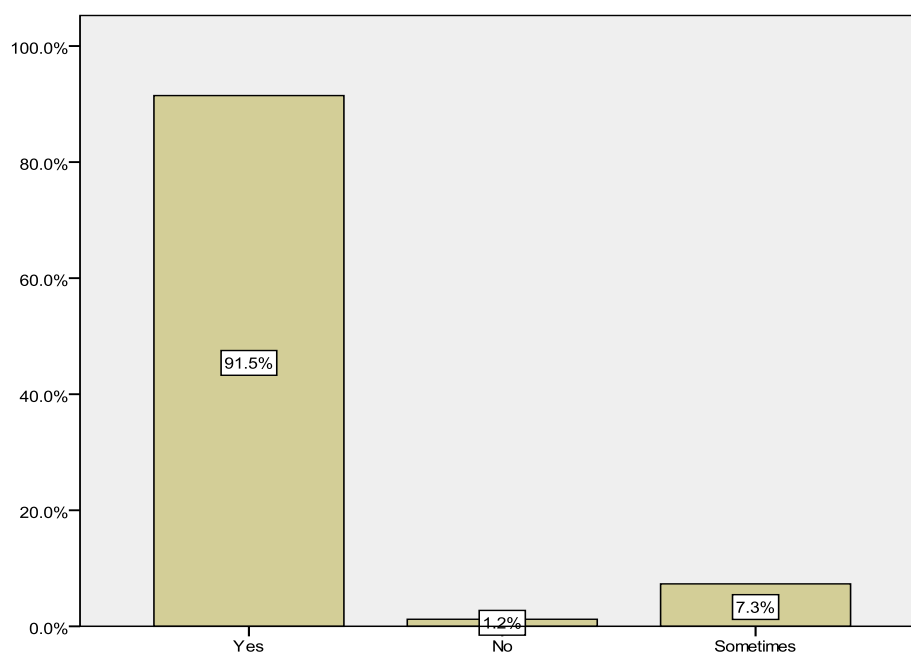
From pupils' comments, they did not like *Chinese characters* because they found them too hard to remember, which is quite similar to their attitudes towards the *writing*. Many pupils did not enjoy their teacher's teaching methods because they claimed that their Mandarin lesson did not have a large variety of activities, and sometimes, the teachers could repeat one point on her own work many times. They wished that the teacher could have more conversation with them and to leave more time for them to learn a smaller amount of knowledge, otherwise their teacher would make them feel stressful and uncomfortable on occasions.

The data analysis further revealed that 4 pupils reported that they liked every option displayed in this question and 3 pupils showed that there was no aspect they particularly disliked. In addition to the statements mentioned above, the pupils left comments for other aspects which they found they most liked and disliked in learning Mandarin. 'Songs' and 'food' were favored by a small percentage (8.5%) of pupils in learning Mandarin, whereas 5 pupils thought they did not like 'exams' and 'presentations' mostly.

6.8 Is the Mandarin lesson different from other language lessons?

Mandarin Chinese is a very different language from the European languages such as French, Spanish or German which students generally learn in schools in the UK. The data analysis revealed that an overwhelming majority of pupils (91.5%) reported that they found Mandarin lessons quite different from other language lessons. A small percentage of respondents (7.3%) indicated that they did not always find Mandarin lessons different from other language lessons; and an even smaller percentage (1.2%) thought Mandarin lesson were similar to other language lessons (see Table 6.7).

Graph 6.7 Is learning Mandarin different from other language lesson?



Pupils' comments representing their reactions in terms of differences between Mandarin lessons and other foreign language lessons can be treated in two groups. The

first group concentrates on teacher's teaching methods and activities they had in lessons:

- We learn faster. (Q-A14-SA-N03)
- We do not do as much conversational speaking, we learn in many different ways.(Q-A11-SD-N19)
- More complicated, it is much more efficient and time is used more practically in Chinese.
(Q-A14 -SD-N28)
- The writing often takes much longer, but we spend less time on grammar.(Q-A15-SC-N31)
- The language is very different so the teaching is very different.(Q-A14-SC-N32)
- e have 'lesson' tests. (Q-A14 -SC-N49)
- It is more active and fun, I sometimes found it easier than other languages.(Q-A13-SB-N57)
- Chinese is much harder in some areas. (Q-A14-SB-N66)
- In German we didn't plan games or have competitions. (Q-A13-SE-N67)
- Because we play more games. (Q-A12-SD-N79)

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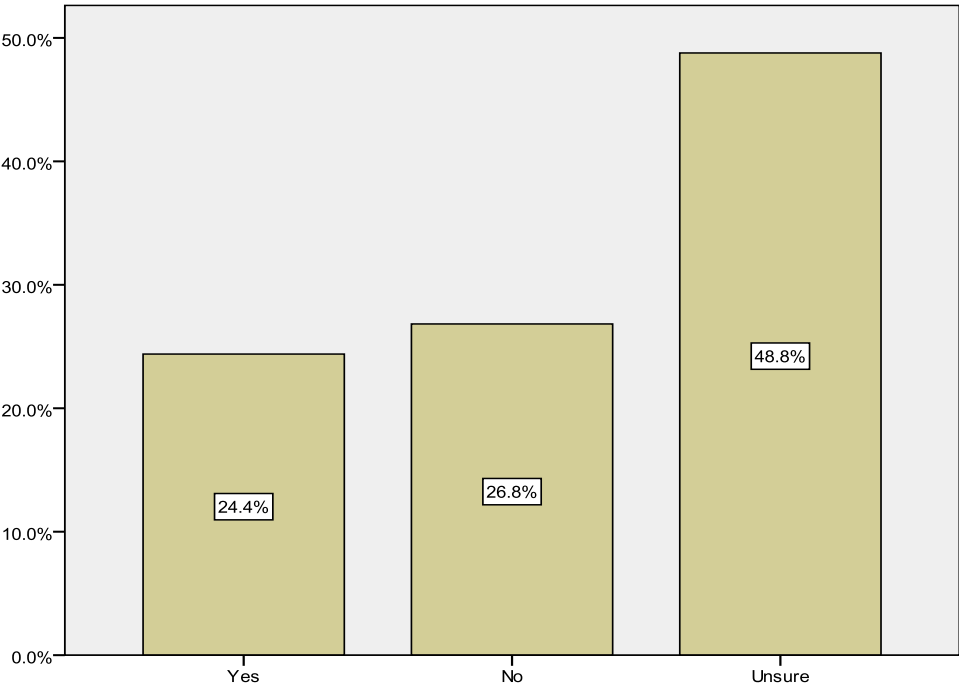
The other group paid more attention to the characteristics of Chinese language which are different from European languages, for example, they reported 'it has a different alphabet', 'pronunciation is harder, learning character is hard and listening can be very hard', 'it doesn't use words, it uses characters', 'no verb conjunctions' or 'the characters are completely different, and are very hard to get used to'.

6.9 Can learning Mandarin help you do other subjects better?

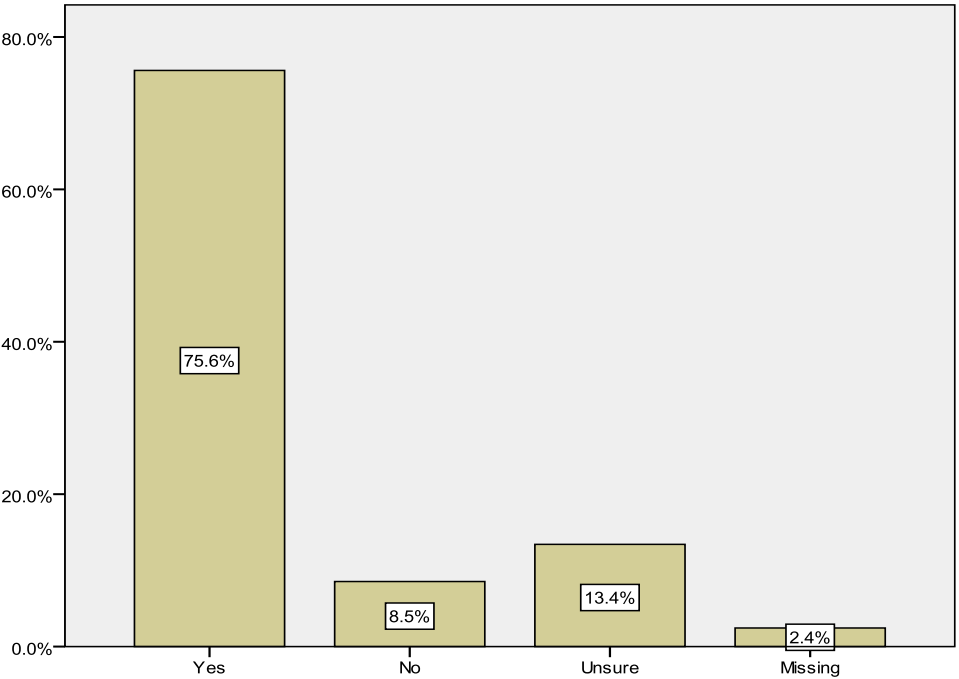
When pupils have experienced learning Mandarin, nearly one quarter (24.5%) of respondents felt learning Mandarin could help them do other subjects better (see Table 6.8). The most common subject pupils mentioned in the comments was geography. They found that learning Mandarin could help 'more insight into cultural

aspects' and 'can tell the teacher things about China' in geography lessons. They believed learning languages would help them in university and their career development in the future; because Mandarin is difficult to learn, 4 pupils indicated that the learning process would train them to be patient and very precise which would help them with other subject learning. 2 pupils thought it helped their memory and helped in Arts. Almost one third (26.8%) of participants did not believe learning Mandarin could help them do other subjects better at all. The only reason pupils gave was because Mandarin is very different to other subjects. They did not think the skills they learnt from Mandarin classes could be applied to other subjects. Nearly half of pupils (48.8%) acknowledged that they were not sure whether learning Mandarin could help them do other subjects better. Only a small group of them left comments. Two pupils indicated that it is different from other subjects but sometimes is related. Q-A13-SC-N46 stated 'it doesn't help with most others, but certainly with Japanese characters'. Hence, three quarters of participants in this survey were more likely to disagree about learning Mandarin could help them do other subjects better.

Graph 6.8 Do you think learning Mandarin help you do other subjects better?



Graph 6.9 Will pupils continue learning Mandarin?



6.10 Will pupils continue learning Mandarin?

Question 15 investigated whether pupils would continue to learn Mandarin and only a small percentage of participants left comments for this question. However, their comments helped us to discover the rationale for their choices. As mentioned earlier, pupils in School A and C were learning Mandarin for GCSE and maybe for A-level and the majority of pupils in these two schools would continue learning Mandarin to GCSE. As expected, Graph 6.9 shows clearly that three quarters (75.6%) of pupils agreed they would continue learning Mandarin. The main reasons the pupils gave for wishing to study Mandarin Chinese was firstly, that some of them definitely wanted to study for GCSE, A-level and maybe a degree. Secondly, they indicated that Mandarin was a widely spoken language and a growing language all over the world. They loved it, wanted to improve it and wished to be able to speak it in China. They were very interested in this language and hoped to go to visit China, to taste various foods; to meet people, as well as to know more about this totally different culture. In particular, under the current economic situation in the world, pupils and their parents thought that picking up this language would help them to get a university place and in order to increase career opportunities in the future. Thirdly, they showed that they would be very proud of themselves, as many of them spoke Spanish and English. If they learnt Chinese, they would speak the three most widely spoken languages in the world. 2 of them also reported that they enjoyed learning languages very much and wanted to be better at Mandarin. Hence, they would keep learning it in the future.

A small percentage of respondents (8.5%) did not think they would continue learning Mandarin. Generally, they gave three reasons for this in the comments. Firstly, they wished they could continue learning; however, they ran out of options for GCSE.

Secondly, they did not enjoy Mandarin Chinese, did not think learning Chinese would be 'useful' and wished to do other subjects after this school year and thirdly, they were unable to choose it, as Mandarin was not open to pupils in all years of study at school.

Over one tenth (13.4%) of respondents claimed that they were not sure whether they would continue doing this course, as they could not take it for GCSE and this would depend on what they wanted to be in the future. They were keen to do course(s) only when they knew which could help them to develop their career.

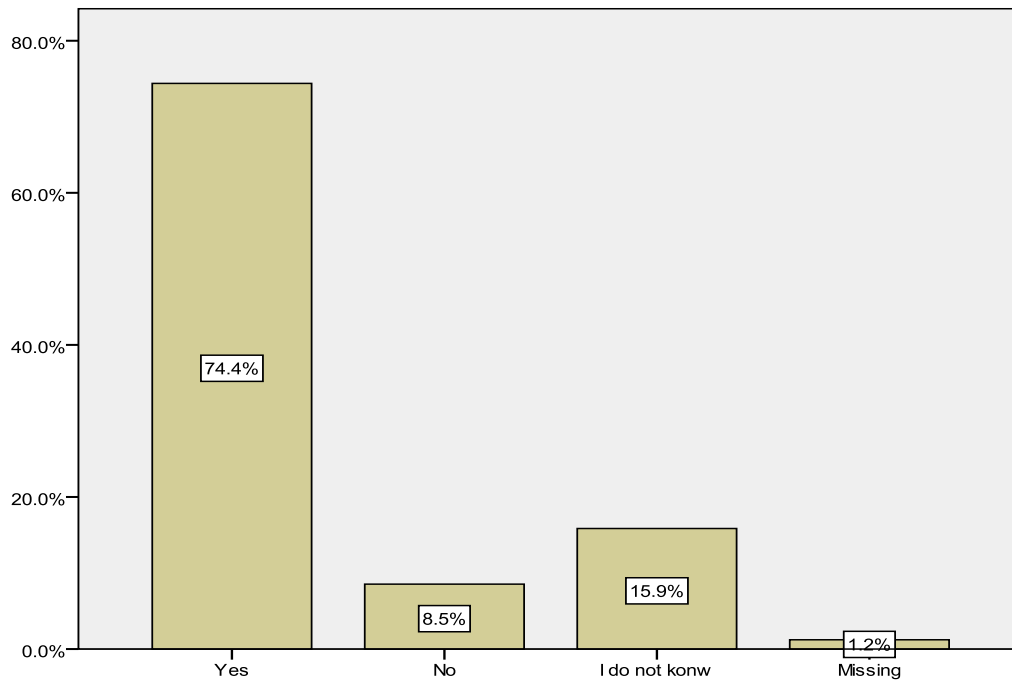
6.11 Do parents support pupils learning Mandarin?

As Burstall *et al*(1974) mentioned, school pupils' attitudes towards language learning are affected by the views of parents and significant others such as relatives, neighbors and family friends. Parents' attitudes towards foreign language learning play an important role in making languages more attractive and motivating pupils. Graph 6.10 shows that about three quarters (74.4%) of respondents indicated that their parents were very keen about their children learning Mandarin, as pupils stated:

- My dad said that the Chinese economy is rising, he thought it is a good thing to do it.(Q-A14-SA-N03)
- They recommended me to do it.(Q-A14-SA-N07)
- My dad and mum are delighted I am learning it. I give them books and they ask me questions.
(Q-A14-SD-N25)
- They like (the fact that) I have found a language I really love and am quite good at it.
(Q-A13-SC-N27)
- My mum is very good at incorporating all aspects of learning Chinese into the lesson (4 skills).
(Q-A14-SC-N38)

- They thought it was odd but support what I want to do.(Q-A11-SB-N56)
- They think it is brilliant as no one else in the family can speak it. (Q-A12-SB-N60)
- They do not mind.(Q-A13-SE-N67)

Graph 6.10 Do parents support pupils learning Mandarin?



Over one tenth (15.9%) of participants had no idea about their parents' attitudes towards their learning of Mandarin Chinese and a small percentage (8.5%) claimed that their parents did not think it was a good idea to study Mandarin Chinese at school. A tiny percentage (1.2%) did not express their attitudes towards this question. Data analysis further revealed parents' attitudes towards learning Mandarin might be changed during their children's learning process, as Q-A13-SE-N81 wrote 'my parents did not support me at the very beginning as they thought that it would be a bad idea to take it up, but now I am teaching my mum and friends'.

6.12 What do you think about the way your teachers teach Mandarin?

Questions 17, 18 and 19 were open-ended questions. Data was coded, transferred and analyzed manually from the questionnaires.

69.5% of the respondents answered question 17, and more than half of them held positive attitudes towards their teachers' teaching methods. Their comments were quite similar to the comments they gave in question 8, which asked for their attitudes towards their teachers of Mandarin.

- Although we go through the book quickly, it is never hard to understand affective, very well.
(Q-A16-SA-N02)
- Very good. I think she teaches well, as I always do very well in the exams. (Q-A14-SA-N07)
- Various different ways are good e.g. PPT, role play etc. (Q-A11-SD-N11)
- She pushes us very hard but is a good teacher. (Q-A13-SD-N22)
- I think it is good we do a lot of speaking and writing we also read Chinese a lot.
(Q-A14-SC-N41)
- She is very lively and patient, so interests the class. (Q-A14 -SC-N49)
- We learn very quickly, and I feel I know a lot. (Q-A14-SB-N53)
- She lets us talk between each other, so it is easier for us to understand. (Q-A14-SB-N65)
- I like the teacher teaches Mandarin because she makes it easier for me. (Q-A14-SE-N70)

To conclude, respondents appreciated the ways their teachers taught Mandarin because firstly, the teacher was sympathetic and was able to help them pass exams and achieve high marks; and secondly, teachers adopted various kinds of activities which aroused pupils' interest in learning Mandarin.

The findings revealed that pupils had also encountered areas of dissatisfaction in regards to their teachers' teaching methods:

- She rushes a lot. (Q-A12-SA-N05)
- We learn about 10 words every lesson and we never go through it twice. (Q-A13-SA-N06)
- It is good for learning the characters but it is quite hard as she goes quite fast. (Q-A11-SA-N08)
- It is a good teaching style but it gets repetitive. (Q-A14-SD-N25)
- We have to learn a lot very quickly and she expects us to remember straight away.
(Q-A14-SC-N36)
- The way she teaches is very quick and sometimes she gives up on you.(Q-A14-SB-N50)

From the quotations mentioned above, it is easy to recognize that ‘teaching too fast’ and ‘repetition’ are the main problems that exist in the teachers’ teaching methods.

6.13 Pupils’ suggestions and advices for teachers

Question 18 asked pupils to state their suggestions and advice for their teachers. The data shows that pupils’ statements more or less echoed their answers in questions, as above. Less than half (40.2%) the participants answered this question. Data showed that pupils mentioned new aspects that they were interested in knowing but which were not covered in their Mandarin lessons. Pupils wished to learn about Chinese festivals, cuisine, dress, how to eat with chopsticks, cooking, more Chinese stories and computer work in their Mandarin classes. As they stated in other questions earlier, more than half of pupils who left comments in this question hoped the teacher could slow down a bit, especially with the learning of characters. They considered that it would be preferable to make sure they knew every character properly, rather than rush. They suggested that the teacher leave more time for revision, especially near exams. The pupils also left advice about their teacher’s teaching:

- More group-work. (Q-A14-SA-N03)
- Spend more time on each students, have more question time. (Q-A13-SD-N22)

- I think we could do more games. (Q-A13-SC-N37)
- Give people time to answer question. (Q-A14-SC-N38)
- Give more tests in small groups. (Q-A14-SB-N66)
- I think it is good, but we do the same thing in lessons over and over again, and I really feel we should do more writing in the lesson. (Q-A14-SB-N71)
- Less whole class work, and spend more time on each student. (Q-A14-SE-N77)

Only 2 pupils stated that they were satisfied with everything they had experienced in learning Mandarin, and encouraged the teacher to ‘carry on in this way’ (Q-A14-SC-N33).

6.14 What aspects of China and Chinese culture would you like to know about?

More than three quarters (76.8%) of respondents listed the aspects of China and Chinese culture they would like to know about. It is interesting to find that pupils from an English context shared similar answers in this question. The majority of the statements revealed a degree of curiosity to know how Chinese people lived in China, how they dressed, what they ate and what their cities, towns and rural life looked like. Data showed that pupils were interested in Chinese history, legends and religion. As the research was carried out in 2008, 3 pupils stated that they wanted to know something about the Beijing Olympics and sports in China. From the aspects pupils mentioned above, we may see that China was a mysterious country to English pupils; hence, they wished to know more about China in the Mandarin classes.

Conclusions

This chapter has sought to explore the results gained from a questionnaire survey administered to pupils in Mandarin classes during the 2007-2008 school year, at a sample of secondary schools in England within this research. The data revealed that the majority of participants held positive attitude towards their Mandarin teachers and Mandarin classes. Most of them reported that they enjoyed learning Mandarin especially before it was getting harder. The questionnaires also give clear evidence that in some pupils' minds, learning Mandarin would be offer chances for them in their future career development. They understood that it was a widely used language, although they found writing and pronunciations very hard to remember. The findings from the questionnaire survey also cover pupils' suggestions and perceptions of learning Mandarin. Importantly, the majority of participants were beginners in learning Mandarin. They brought their limited learning experiences of learning Mandarin to listening, speaking, reading or writing and these findings will be further discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 7: Discussion

Introduction

In this chapter, the findings presented in Chapters 4, 5 and 6 will be further discussed. A detailed discussion will be conducted on the rationale for introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language in a sample of schools within an English context whilst considering the day-to-day teachers' and pupils' practices in teaching and learning. Based on the presentation of the research methodology employed in this study as outlined in Chapter 3, and the findings presented in the previous chapters, this chapter will specifically address the research questions. First, the discussion of the rationale for introducing Mandarin in schools will be considered, by providing a broader view of the importance of Chinese at a global level and the changes in English legislation. Based on these background influences, the chapter will discuss the rationale for introducing Mandarin Chinese in a sample of schools in England. This focus will consider the problem of mismatching link schools and the importance of having link schools in developing pupils' intercultural competence. This chapter aims to point out the similarities and differences between the challenges faced by the five schools.

The second section will then pay attention to the teaching and learning of Mandarin. It will focus on how teachers organize and implement the National Curriculum; teachers' practices in classes (including which teaching method is adopted, lesson plans and teaching resources) and teachers' professional development. The comparison between practices in GCSE classes and non GCSE classes will be covered. The challenges for teachers of Mandarin in both their career development and

teaching practice will be examined.

The discussion in the third section includes teachers' and pupils' perceptions; it will discuss both teachers' and pupils' views, so as to ascertain the achievements and difficulties they face during their teaching and learning experiences. Finally, the fourth part of this chapter analyses the limitations of this study, and advances suggestions to improve it.

7.1 The rationale for introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language in a sample of schools in England

The current section addresses the following specific research question:

What are the reasons for introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language in a sample of schools in an English context?

It is very important to ascertain why the schools in England wanted to introduce Mandarin Chinese into an English context. The answer to this question was displayed firstly in Chapter 4 and was seen to be a result of the globalization process of language. Recent research studies in this field (Li and Zhu 2011) have further considered the rationale for introducing Mandarin Chinese, for example as a result of political needs, economic needs and pupils' lifelong career plan needs. This section aims to discuss these elements in greater detail.

7.1.1 Link schools in China and England

Links between schools in China and England have multiplied, as Zhang and Li state "the Chinese and British Governments signed a collaboration agreement on the promotion of Chinese and English language learning and teaching in China and the

UK, including a school exchange programme administered by the British Council” (2010, p.87). In addition, CILT (2007) has mentioned that nearly half of schools in its survey have a partner school in China. However, in this study, the sample of schools in England surveyed, had their own rationale for starting to introduce Mandarin Chinese. Schools B, D and E had a link school in China; School A and C, meanwhile, organized pupil visits to China annually. The city schools A and C had link cities in China and they had link schools. Each year, the link cities organized pupils’ visits to China or exchange visits. In this case, all schools in this research had their link schools in China (see section 4.2.1). This study’s findings show that having a link school made it an easier, more direct way for schools in England to start introducing Mandarin; however, to find a suitable link school is important, especially when schools in England employ teachers of Mandarin from its link school in China.

In interviews, Head Teachers B and E and Head of Department D expressed a similar idea, namely that working collaboratively with a link school was very helpful in introducing Mandarin, especially when an English school wanted to start a Mandarin Chinese course. Link schools in China effectively operated as a window to open pupils’ eyes to further investigations of the Chinese language, culture and related aspects of interest. This was the first opportunity for both teachers and pupils in English schools to know what Chinese culture is. In this research, the link schools in China for school D and E were secondary schools and school Bs link was a technical school. Teacher B, who came from the Technical School, first found it hard to understand what pupils said. The Technical school in China catered for students who failed to pass the national university entrance examination, thus the pupils were likely to have lower skills in each subject and enter the technical college to learn a skill such

as repair, maintenance or hair dressing, hence, she used more Mandarin when teaching her English classes in China. “I prefer to use Mandarin in my EFL classes in China. It is easier for students to understand grammar rules and the meaning of vocabulary” (IT-B). When she came to England, besides classroom management and other problems that she encountered, she strove to understand what pupils said and sometimes merely ignored what she could not understand. Secondly, she was working with post 16 students in China and lacked the experience of teaching pupils aged between 13 and 14. She spent a long time trying to understand the pupils’ needs and how she could intervene more effectively. The teachers of Chinese in Schools D and E who were found from link schools via the British Council worked more appropriately than the teacher in school B, as teachers D and E adopted more student-centered teaching methods in their Mandarin classes and designed more games to match pupils’ needs in England. Teachers D and E were teaching in secondary schools in China, they were younger than teacher B and had better English presentation skills in Mandarin. Compared with their teaching experience in China, they found that pupils in KS3 in England needed more games and fewer texts than their students had in China. It was useful for them to put less content in each lesson plan, but they needed to investigate what kind of games teachers use in the class for pupils in KS3 and tried to design the games with Chinese elements.

Based on these issues, it would be better if the schools in England could find a link school which had a similar background in China, for example, an English grammar school might find a key/selected school in China. It would be easier for them to communicate with each other and decrease the gaps between different expectations. In addition, appropriate training before teachers come to England is needed. Besides

professional development, teachers' knowledge of the culture of English society and the understanding of local education systems and classroom management are expected.

7.1.2 Towards intercultural competence

Culture and intercultural understanding have been valued as an important part of the development of students' education in England for some time, as outlined in the National Curriculum aims in England. For example, all subjects need to include "teaching opportunities for spiritual, moral, social, cultural, emotional, intellectual and physical development" (DCFS, 2008). In particular, in Modern Foreign Languages intercultural understanding is recognised as a feature of the Key Stage 3 Framework and teachers are expected to find ways for pupils to "appreciate cultural diversity" and "recognise different ways of seeing the world".

According to Byram (1997; 2002) the components of intercultural competence include attitudes (*savoir être*), knowledge (*savoir apprendre*), skills (*savoirs*), and values (*savoir faire*) which can also be understood as the ability to draw upon the above three abilities in interacting with people from different cultures. From the previous discussion, the link school plays an important role in introducing Mandarin in England. In order to explore how link schools affect the process of introducing Mandarin in schools, as well as how important link schools are in developing pupils' intercultural competence, it is necessary to examine how link schools work with each other to find out different co-working models by different schools.

Attitudes are treated as the foundation of intercultural competence (Byram, Gribkova

et al. 2002), which suggests an ability to arouse people's interests and perceptions of other cultures, as well as "involve affective and cognitive change in learners"(Jones 2000, p.163). In the interviews with heads of schools, they noted that observable changes have been made in pupils, particularly for those who have never had the chance to know about China in their schools. As one respondent commented:

...The partnership with the school in China, that kind of opens up the pupils' eyes, like here a lot of our kids have never been anywhere, some haven't been out of Leamington... (IHT-SB)

After pupils have gained a more developed idea of a country such as China, the schools then hoped that pupils could have more knowledge about this specific country and its culture (Byram, Gribkova et al. 2002). For some schools with higher achievement, they were dissatisfied with gaining primary knowledge about China, but also wanted to communicate with them and explore what beliefs, values and meanings Chinese people shared. As Head E noted in the interview:

...It is not only about knowledge. They need to developing personally, as well as personal development and develop as a human being, communication skills, which are very important for life really and for work. Obviously, academic skills are important as well so that they can read and write well. They have knowledge and understanding, which we call emotional intelligence, which is the ability to work with other people and get the best out of other people. So this is quite a big skill to learn as well, I think.

(IHT-SE)

Observations in these schools also indicated that teachers have worked on enhancing pupils' knowledge of Chinese society and social policies. It was observed that in some schools, the teachers translated learning goals into carefully designed activities which were supported by glimpses of Chinese life and culture:

The aim of today's session is to teach fruit. The teacher starts the session by revision of what pupils learned from the last class which is about colors. The teacher then matches the fruits to colors by using cue cards... the pupils start copying the teacher's pronunciation...the teacher divides pupils into 2 groups and starts a competition in making sentences such as I love red apples (我爱红苹果) which combines words they have learned ... after the game, the teacher plays a video which started with different fruit trees in Chinese rural areas ... at the end of the video is a snatch about people's lives in a Chinese urban area which includes a traffic jam, KFC, pupils' school life etc... (O-SD-C2-V2)

In Chapter 4 section 4.3.3, it is suggested that link schools between the UK and China exchange pupils to enhance their understanding of mutual cultures. Similarly, statements were also made by school A. In the interview, the head teacher found, after a year of Chinese learning and a summer trip to China, that some pupils' views on the current situation in Chinese society were different from the traditional British perception. Indeed, they had already built up their own understanding of the information and knowledge about the culture they gained.

The fact that the one child policy in China...And they explained that, and the nice thing was that it was explained from a Chinese point of view. So it wasn't just what an English person would say. Where English people would say about the one child policy that's not fair ... (IHT-SA)

Compared to attitudes and knowledge components of intercultural competence, pupils' skills in employing Chinese language seem to relate much more to teachers' abilities in Mandarin Chinese teaching in this study. Teachers need to have the ability to interpret the knowledge of a culture or event familiar to natives of the culture (Byram 1997), which means teachers of Mandarin need to be familiar with the

English language and local culture, with what they already have to help themselves anticipate and translate ideas, information and knowledge from the other perspective to meet pupils' needs in England. They also need to find out how to reduce misunderstandings and bias when they communicate with pupils and colleagues.

However, in practice, teaching Chinese abroad is not an easy job, for most of the foreign language assistants; three foreign language assistants in this research had problems communicating with local people in England. The findings show that teachers of Mandarin need to enhance their ability to acquire information about other countries, together with their learners and friends, and compare different cultures in different social contents. These comments demonstrate this:

It is hard to explain when I was not well. Sometimes, I do not know how to express my feeling clearly, and also, I am not sure whether my colleagues get it... (IT-SB)

...she is very nice, but to be honest, sometimes I did not get her especially when we discussed something about beliefs and pupils' behaviour in class... (IHoD-SD)

... she likes to talk to herself, I do not know what she is talking about ...

(Q-A13-SB-N64)

I don't always understand her questions. (Q-A14-SB-N66)

From these statements, it appears that in teaching Mandarin in schools in England, the importance of link schools affects the process of introducing Mandarin in schools and in developing pupils' intercultural competence presented previously, although it was not the purpose of the study to demonstrate this situation. However, the fact is that teachers of Mandarin sought from the link schools in China still need a lot of training and examples of practice in how to reduce the gap between different cultures to enhance the ability to translate and explain cultures and ideas from the two cultures

“side by side, and [see] how each might look from the other perspective”(Byram, Gribkova et al. 2002, p.8).

7.2 Classroom practice in the teaching of Mandarin

This section addresses the research question:

What are the teaching methods used and what are the teachers' goals in Mandarin Chinese teaching?

This section and the next section (7.3) will present what happened in the five schools by examining the data collected. In this respect, section 7.2 will pay attention to teachers' teaching materials, teaching goals, professional development and progression and continuity in teaching Mandarin Chinese. Subsequently, section 7.3 will compare GCSE and non-GCSE classes, as has been explained in Chapter 5, section 5.4.7 and 5.4.8.

7.2.1 Teaching materials

The findings presented in the previous chapter reported a lack of appropriate and practical teaching materials in Chinese; this was an acute problem for most of the schools in my study, especially for the non-GCSE schools- Schools B, D and E. It seems that Chinese teachers “tend to stick to the textbook, which is often the same one throughout practically the whole country”(Wu 2010, p.292). According to this fact, “stick to the textbook”, Boyle's (2000, p.153) research about education for teachers of English in China indicated that among about 350,000 junior middle schools (ages 12-15) at one stage, over 80%, of them used the same textbook

developed by the People's Education Press in collaboration with Longman, called *Junior English for China*. In following this series of textbook, Chinese teachers "put much more effort into learning grammar and vocabulary lists", as well as into "keeping an eye firmly fixed on the national examinations"(Boyle 2000, p.153). Teachers cared about the fixed answers which were mentioned in the textbook and they believed that "good answers are those that can be sure to get most marks rather than answers with carefully structured arguments"(Yan and Chow 2002, p.143).

As a result, although there are many kinds of textbooks on the market, all teachers in this study who were teaching English in China, before they started teaching Mandarin in England, were not satisfied with the teaching resources they had. Even for school A and C who were teaching Mandarin Chinese for GCSE, where they had continuity in staff and a clear scheme of work to guide them in their teaching to ensure continuity, teachers needed to re-organize the textbook with their understanding of British culture and make workable schemes of work to teach. Teachers D and E stopped using the aforementioned textbooks and devised different schemes of teaching; Teacher B did not even have any textbook, as the school considered that textbook was not suitable for their pupils. Thus, teacher B had no idea what a textbook looked like.

Based on the teachers' reports, it would appear that the textbooks on the market are not satisfactory for the requirement of the British curriculum and learners' needs. They are not designed from the point of view of learners' and users' needs and did not take account of a British context. Furthermore, teachers would need to add a number of pictures, videos and background introductions to help pupils understand what they were learning. In such a case, if editors can provide some similar cases based on how

pupils learn in other European languages in English schools, it may help learners to understand the content. For teachers like teachers D and E who had no prior experience of teaching, if they had a textbook before they started work, or before they went to England, it would be better for them as they would have enough time to prepare relevant teaching materials which they could find in China, instead of feeling unprepared and finding difficulties in acquainting themselves with a textbook when they had just arrived. *Kuaile Hanyu* (refer to Appendixes 16, 17 and 18) is one textbook which is introduced to School D and E by local education authorities. This is a set of textbook for beginners with good progression and many pictures. It produced dialogues based on simulate situations, and designed content by equally developing the four skills. However, why Teachers D and E did not choose this book for teaching? First of all, every teacher has his/her own way of teaching. Teachers in the UK are given the authority and freedom to choose the material which they thought is suitable for the learners according to their experience and the target at exam techniques (Pachler, Evans et al. 2007). Teachers D and E were one year FLAs, they did not have any experience in teaching Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language in England, then have no clue of their teaching at the very beginning. Teacher E tried to use *Kuaile Hanyu* at the very beginning of her teaching, however, after two lessons, she identified that learners did not have fun in the class, and they could not remember the pronunciations they learnt in the last lesson. Moreover, the Asset exams in the end of the school year did not based on the content of *Kuaile Hanyu*, and only text very simple speaking. Finally she gave it up.

As Wang and Higgins (2008) mentioned “current texts are often set in either China or Australia” (, p.94); some localized Chinese teaching materials in England such as

Nihao and *Kuaile Hanyu* were published by Chinese publishers. Particularly in the 1990s and early 2000s, few publications were based upon research and understanding of how English native speakers learn Chinese as a foreign language (Wang and Higgins 2008). These teaching materials were designed based on the points of view of how Chinese people learned English as a foreign language. Moreover, many countries with the same language background e.g. Britain, Canada, America and Australia shared similar teaching materials published by Chinese publishers which were really hard to meet people's needs in different cultural backgrounds. Given this problem, for example for a British learner, it would be preferable to have editors from a British background to design materials to suit the needs of learners following the framework of the National Curriculum. They could compile it on the basis of how pupils learn another major European language such as French or German. It may help to decrease the differences between the teaching of foreign languages. Wang and Higgins (2008) argue that "the market is still so small publishers are reluctant to do this" however, as Mandarin is becoming more widely taught in England and the number of candidates for Chinese GCSE and A-level has increased by 50% and 40% since 2001 (CILT 2009), the market is expanding. The increasing requirements from learners have pushed publishers in England to produce more British-based Mandarin Chinese teaching materials. As Teachers A and C stated in my interviews, materials in teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese for learners in England have developed considerably. It is also very helpful for teachers, as for teacher B in this study, who did not belong to any relevant organization or association, to find a workable textbook for teaching. In this study, Teachers A and C were satisfied with the current teaching materials they employed for GCSE. The content of *Chinese for GCSE* from the British Council which was published in 2006 (refer to Appendix 15) was deemed to be practical in

terms of Mandarin teaching (interview with teachers A and C). These sets of books were divided into topics by unit and each unit covered one topic. The units presented content through pictures, dialogues and exercises. Based on the content, Teachers A and C extended relevant practices by adopting other teaching materials and resources gained from the internet and bookshops, in order to develop pupils' language skills and cultural competence. In interview, both Teachers A and C identified that although *Chinese for GCSE* (refer to Appendix 15) has nice pictures and good progression, "the level of *Chinese for GCSE* is not enough to the standard for GCSE exams..." (Interview Notes, IT-SA). It is only can be used for foundation teaching and learning. According to this problem, the new set of books for advanced GCSE learners – *Edexcel GCSE* textbooks (refer to Appendixes 13 and 14) published in 2009 would help teachers to have more efficiently practice. For example, *Edexcel GCSE* has very few pinyin and less pictures. Particularly, it has sections for revision (refer to Appendix 13) which is easier for teachers to organize revision to meet the GCSE exams standard. The large amount of characters even far beyond the GCSE exam standard, and suit to AS level. Then, today, teachers teaching for GCSE classes can adopt the set of *Chinese for GCSE* for foundation teaching and learning, and employ *Edexcel GCSE* for advanced level.

The lack of suitable teaching materials seemed to adversely affect the process and results of learning and teaching in this study. For full time teachers, much time and energy was spent looking for relevant information and resources to support existing teaching content in textbooks, rather than thinking of how to expand pupils' knowledge. Given that most foreign language assistants came to teach in England for one year only and produced teaching materials by themselves, it was hard for the next

teachers to catch up with what pupils have been taught and to avoid repetition. Having systematic teaching materials might also help to protect the enthusiasm of students and teachers.

From the above discussion, it may be seen that most teachers of Mandarin Chinese in this research, particularly foreign language assistants, preferred to design teaching materials rather than employ the textbook provided by the Local Authorities or Hanban. According to this phenomenon, teacher A, who adopted the GCSE textbook, had her own understanding based on her own teaching experience in both China and England:

Most Chinese EFL (English teaching as a foreign language) teachers work like craftsman who requires specific rules or methods. They created teaching materials based on imitation. They tend to follow what they were taught rather than come under the guidelines of a particular approach... when they arrive here (England) they lack professional linguistic skill and cultural understanding in English. It is really hard for them to follow textbooks or national curriculum. When I just started teaching in England, I was in the same situation as they are now. (Interview Notes, IT-SA)

Teacher A's statement identifies the characteristics of Chinese English teachers' teaching models. Their teaching approaches were influenced by their learning experiences such as how they have been taught when they were students. In most cases gained from teachers' interviews, teachers found that given the various pressures of examinations, they were highly reliant on textbooks when they were conducting classes. They needed to memorize the knowledge and information written in textbooks. However, when they started teaching in England, they found that there was no role of teaching methods or pedagogy for them to follow in the textbooks they

had been given. In addition, in English schools, how to arouse pupils' interest in learning Chinese and encouraging their continuing learning is more important than academic performance in their teaching. However, in practice, they firstly found the textbooks they had were too difficult for pupils to learn, and not practical enough; secondly, even after they adapted the textbooks and created their own materials as other foreign language teachers do in English schools, the pedagogy they were used to in China was still an obstacle in their teaching. As was mentioned in section 5.3, Chinese teachers see textbooks as a vital tool. According to different teachers' styles of teaching, it is hard to define which teaching materials are good. This suggests that Chinese teachers need to understand more about how teachers teach in England before they start teaching; they also need to reflect and change their teaching methods to match pupils' needs in England. It suggests that more relevant training is required to support teachers' teaching and instruct them as to what and how to teach.

However, according to Ball and Feiman-Nemser (1988), Hutchinson and Torres (1994) and many other scholars, one of the main principles of being a good teacher is regarded as to avoid following textbooks and teachers' guides, but instead, to promote their own lessons and materials and develop the curriculum. It is suggested that curriculum materials could work as an agent in practice (Ball and Cohen 1996). Ball and Cohen (1996) have suggested that "teachers' understanding of materials, their belief about what is important, and their ideas about students and the teacher's role all strongly shape their practice" (p.6). In this sense, for teachers who do not have strong curriculum guidance, such as Teachers B, D and E in this study, they must select, adopt and produce suitable teaching materials for their pupils so as to positively shape pupils' Chinese language learning experience.

7.2.2 Teachers' professional development

The teachers of Mandarin Chinese had a direct impact on curriculum arrangements and planning the teaching activities. Their professional knowledge, experience and understanding of language teaching, especially Mandarin Chinese teaching and learning, largely determined the decisions they made in daily practice. According, in the findings gained in this research, the teachers of Mandarin Chinese were most familiar with systematically identifying, collecting recording and analyzing the evidence of how learners are learning and developing. Thus, the role of teachers in implementing the curriculum at classroom level is of great importance (Clune 1993; Fullan 2001). By practically using such knowledge to decide and design the curriculum, the teachers of Mandarin Chinese managed pupils' learning and provided suggestions to enhance success and achievement.

CILT's survey findings (2007) show that "only 31% of schools have a Mandarin teacher with QTS" (CILT 2007, p.2). In my study, only one in five teachers of Mandarin had QTS and one school mentioned that they would have a teacher of Mandarin with QTS from the following academic year. To compare Teacher A's instructional practice with other teacher in this study, it is important for teachers of Mandarin to be trained for QTS or PGCE, as a professional preparation and training becomes essential in enhancing teachers' abilities to implement a curriculum. Some teachers, e.g. teachers A, B and C, commented that they did not have any specific trainer or teacher to train them. In this case, they needed people to train them in how to teach in an English context at the very beginning. Teacher D had a very good

experience in attending training facilitated by the British Council and HSBC:

I had three training sessions in London after I started teaching Mandarin here. They invited some experienced teachers of Mandarin to attend. They (experienced teachers) spoke and shared their teaching experience with us. Their experiences sounded like stories which were very vivid, and impressed me, and stuck in my mind.

(Interview Notes, IT-SE)

Although three times was far from enough for foreign language assistants, this intervention nonetheless provided useful training input. In addition, observing other foreign language classes in schools provided them with more information related to the schools they work for, which would make it easier for them to employ what they had learnt in practice. It was recognized that if they did not have relevant knowledge and skills to design and organize a curriculum, the teaching may not be successful.

Teachers' interpretations of curriculum guidance and decision-making are affected by their experiences, knowledge, beliefs and perspectives on foreign language education and the training they have undertaken. In particular, professional training on curriculum understanding and implementation can enhance teachers' abilities to implement a curriculum (Moys 1997). It also helps teachers to have a secure knowledge and understanding of their subject and curriculum areas and related pedagogy to enable them to teach effectively across the age and ability range for which they are trained. In the schools visited in this study, only school A and C were offering Mandarin within the curriculum; they taught Mandarin Chinese for GCSE. Teachers of Mandarin expressed similar ideas which showed that they felt positively towards training. One novice teacher from school A explained how development activities helped her:

...for the first term of my teaching year, I observed other language classes when I was not teaching. I copied most of the activities in their classes at the very beginning to match pupils' needs. The head of department and other teachers in the department stayed with me in the class, and in turn, they observed my classes, and gave me suggestions. We discussed schemes of work and lesson plans before the classes as well. I learnt a lot from them, and now I can handle classes and can give my colleagues suggestions ... (IT-SA)

A positive view of training was also given by the head of department in school A; she is an experienced language teacher with more than 25 years' teaching experience and expressed her feeling of pride when she was talking about her on-going teacher training in the department. She thought that this was a very useful and helpful way to develop teachers' skills and abilities, while they exchanged their teaching experiences and observed each other's classes. At the same time, teacher's on-going training sessions provided teachers with a chance to build up a close network in the department.

Ma, Lam and Wong (2006) stated that teachers seldom implement a curriculum exactly as stated in curriculum guidance. Rather, Doyle and Ponder (1976) indicated that teachers tend to make their own practical interpretation of what to teach and how to teach it. This situation was reflected in the schools visited in this research. As teacher C explained:

... well, I think generally, for the most part, the curriculum suits my classes very well but in practice, sometimes I need to swap some section orders, or change the schedule to match pupils' progress. For example, as for this year's year 7 pupils, I found they needed more time than last year to warm them up, and get the feeling of what they are learning. But after the first couple of

weeks, they can do well, and we speedup ... (IT-SC)

Teacher A also made a comment along similar lines, but felt frustrated about the irrelevance of the curriculum content and the suitability of certain topics in the curriculum:

... as you know they (English people) do not have 端午节 (dragon boat festival), how can we make a dragon boat and show them how to play it. I can only show them the video, and also, they found it hard to understand the story behind this festival. Pupils kept asking me questions such as why the poet commits suicide and my answer was that he loved his country and was disappointed with the policy which I learnt from books when I was young. This did not satisfy them at all. I did not know how to deal with it... (IT-SA)

She voiced her frustration at dealing with issues and making suitable and context based learning experiences for the pupils. The issues of the curriculum are not only based on pupils' experience, it appears as an issue intersected with power. Being in a position to have problems in facing pupils' difficulties in understanding foreign cultures, her disempowerment is apparent in the comments instead of looking for a similar story in British history to help pupils make sense of what happened in the story.

7.2.2.1 Chinese language teachers' language competence

Based on the findings from the classroom observations, the language competence of Chinese language teachers in English schools was an important issue which needed to be addressed. The discussion of Chinese teachers' language competence can be explained from both Chinese and English language competences.

On the one hand, teachers of Chinese had problems in teaching Chinese as a target language to English speakers. As was mentioned earlier, all teachers of Chinese in this study were English teachers in China before coming to England and before they became teachers of Chinese in England, all their training and education had been concerned with how to teach English as a foreign language to Chinese students. Although they were Chinese native language speakers, the teachers were not ready to teach Chinese as a foreign language to English speakers as they did not have proper trainings in preparing them to teach Chinese as a foreign language and to adjust to the requirements of a completely new education system. To take a parallel case, not every native English speaker can be an English teacher and it requires relevant training. In this study, nearly all the teacher participants were in agreement on this issue. FLAs were only teaching Chinese as a foreign language abroad for one year; they wished to have training sessions before and after they started teaching Chinese in England, which would prepare them with updated knowledge of teaching Chinese as a foreign language, particularly in an English context, as well helping them to improve their understanding of the English education system, English social knowledge and pupils' characters. Teachers A and C, who were permanent teachers in England, asked for more in-service training sessions to prepare them for the new requirements of the GCSE examination.

On the other hand, teachers of Chinese had to employ English in the process of their teaching. This was a challenge for most of the teachers of Chinese, especially FLAs, although they were English teachers in China, their pupils were Chinese native speakers as they were. Furthermore, in Chinese English classes, both teachers and pupils shared the same language, as well as a similar culture, social knowledge and

educational background. It should be easier for pupils to meet teachers' requirements, as well as being easier for teachers to present new knowledge. According to pupils in China, English teachers could use Chinese to help them to express themselves; however, according to English pupils particularly those who were new in learning Chinese, teachers of Chinese only could adopt English to give lessons and explain knowledge. Data collected from classroom observations presented a fact, namely that FLAs were not ready to implement English as their first language in their everyday communicating and teaching with English people.

My research supports the fact that teachers of Chinese had quite high expectations of relevant professional training regarding their professional knowledge of teaching Chinese as a foreign language or their understanding of the English education system and English teaching instruction. The collected data with regards to teachers language proficiency suggests that the FLAs were not ready to meet the requirement of their new instruction circumstances in an English context, as they themselves requested that professional training sessions would help them prepare and to be Chinese language teachers in England.

7.2.3 Continuity and progression

The fieldwork for this research was carried out in 2008, at that time Mandarin teaching had just started up in a small number of schools in England. Most of the schools only paid attention to this new language module in a very short time. As presented in Chapter 2, the provision for teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in schools in England has increased steadily, however: there remain concerns about year

on year continuity of Mandarin teaching, and about progression and assessment for learners. This section will discuss issues of continuity and progression based on the findings of this research.

As an important educational principle, “continuity applies vertically as students progress through school, and laterally across different teachers and subjects”(Cohen, Manion et al. 2005, p.130). In terms of this research, luckily, working as full time members of staff, Teacher A and C could have a MFL team to discuss what the students have done before and what they are going to do in other curriculum areas; more than that, Cohen et al (2005) believe that on-going training so as to be familiar with school policy on every aspect of their schools’ work will help teachers to achieve a greater consistency of practice. However, foreign language assistants were almost working by themselves during their Mandarin teaching experience. As the teachers explained:

“I started teaching the next day after I arrived. I did not know anyone; I could not even find the classroom...” (IT-SB)

“...other foreign language teachers were very nice to me; we observed each others’ classes when I started teaching here. However, after that, we did not talk that much. The MFL team in this school is very small, and I really did not know how to find many topics to talk to them about...of course we have greetings and short conversations when we meet up...” (IT-SD)

“...to be honestly, I do know their school policy here. There is a tutor with me; if students did something unacceptable, the tutor would help me to deal with them ... she did not show any dissatisfaction with me so far... we work well...” (IT-SE)

Cohen et al (2005) argue that the teacher has the responsibility to “establish the continuity between (pupils’) existing knowledge, concepts, skills, ways of working, teaching and learning styles” (p.130) which asked teachers to have skills in setting up a link with pupils’ existing abilities and what they are going to learn. In this research, Teachers A and C taught the same groups of pupils with the same series of textbooks. They were able to enhance pupils’ knowledge and skills based on what they had learnt in practice, whereas Teachers B, D and E found it hard for to include continuity in their teaching. Firstly, most of the pupils in their classes were beginners in Mandarin Chinese learning, thus, it was unnecessary for them to investigate what pupils had learnt in the module beforehand. Secondly, they were only one year teachers of Mandarin Chinese working overseas as foreign language assistants in England, thus impossible for them to follow up what they had taught after one year of teaching. Thirdly, when interviewed, Teacher D said they had some students who were taking Mandarin Chinese the year before and they were still attending Mandarin lunch club. For these students, Teacher D could not guarantee whether the context in her lunch club did not repeated the knowledge that pupils had learnt the previous year. However, working outside the national curriculum, without any syllabus or guide, she had no idea what the teacher the year before had taught; as she noted:

“...fortunately, they only do this for fun. They do not need to do any exams. I did not see the teacher who was here last year and really do not have any idea of what he did’ (IT-SD)



As Mandarin Chinese is now being introduced in more and more schools in England, continuity and progression will be a constant challenge in teaching and learning. The British Council is the main channel for schools to recruit foreign language assistants


in Mandarin. It will be very helpful therefore if it could organize something like “welcome time” before foreign language assistants come to teach from abroad. This “welcome time” could aim to invite teachers who have finished their teaching in England and new teachers who are going to teach in England to come together to share their teaching experiences. During this time, teachers who work for the same school would be able to have a discussion as how to continue the teaching and help pupils to progress. After this meeting, teachers would have a network not only with those who are teaching abroad during the same period, but also who had similar teaching experiences to support their teaching and help the pupils to progress.

Progression is treated as the partner of continuity. Compared to “continuity”, which focuses more on learning knowledge with linking what pupils have learnt in the past, attaining what they need to achieve, and preparing them for further learning; “progression” provided pupils with a series of challenges but attainable goals (Capel, Leask et al. 2005). In Cohen *et al* (2010) “progression” is seen as “the cumulative, systematic and incremental acquisition of the knowledge, understandings and matters of the National curriculum through its ten-level sequence for planning and assessment purposes and its programme of study” (p.135). In language learning, Hunt (2009) regards “progression” as an aspect which focuses on requiring clearly planned schemes of work, so as to avoid repetition of the same materials year by year and key stage by key stage. In this respect, the discussion of progression in the teaching and learning of Mandarin Chinese will be divided into two parts, one part based on day to day classroom practice, and the other taking a longer term view in providing a series of goals for further teaching and learning.

Capel *et al*(2005) indicate that ensuring the progression in learning for all pupils is the biggest challenge facing teachers. This is because pupils have different starting points in their learning, based on their own unique knowledge, experience, culture and interests and may have different interactions with the same material. For example, as the observation notes stated:

In School D lesson 2, with Year 7 pupils, the teacher is introducing pictographs which are the oldest type of Chinese characters; they were original pictures of things. During the past 5,000 years they became the character we are writing today. The teacher writes the character 水 (water) on the

whiteboard, and draws  and  to show pupils where 水 came from in

pictographs. After that, she writes 山 (mountain), and draws  with it. She asks pupils to create pictographs. Pupils are really interested in this activity; they really seem to love creating something new. One pupil raises his hand, and says he created the word television, and then he shows the teacher what he has drawn. He told the teacher, the television is a digital one ...

(O-SD-C1-V2)

After the class, I interviewed the teacher and she felt very excited about the pupils' creative abilities but also confused as well. She commented that she had expected pupils to create pictographs such as 火 (fire), moon (月) or sun (日) which follows her logic and the example she gave out on a worksheet and her teaching plan for this lesson was not finished. The teacher was surprised that pupils had produced pictographs for “inappropriate” items like a TV and felt they had misunderstood the goal of the lesson. However, she made an assumption about what pupils would have known. However, she made an assumption about what pupils would have known. She believed that the pupils would realise the importance of utilizing traditional Chinese

characters, but fail to recognize how incorrect her assumption about the pupils' prior knowledge was. If the teacher does not recognise the starting point of the pupils, then she cannot make the learning relevant to them, so that they can make progress in their learning.

In this research, as was mentioned earlier, two schools were doing GCSE in Mandarin Chinese, and three schools were using ASSET Languages to assess pupils. In the interviews, all the Heads of MFL Department of the five schools indicated that they treated Mandarin Chinese as a part of the curriculum and Schools D and E showed that this course was offered to gifted pupils. In practice, besides Schools A and C, who adopted GCSE to assess pupils' skills and had continuity in teaching materials and staff; pupils progressed in their learning, following a series of GCSE textbooks, thereby ensuring the "development of each of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as language learning skills; a deepening acquisition of linguistic knowledge and ability, and an expansion of cultural awareness" (Hunt 2009, p.206).

However, for Schools B, D and E continuity and progression in teaching and learning seemed very difficult in practice. On the one hand, the schools had new teachers of Mandarin Chinese each year and the teachers were working without a clear syllabus. As little or no attention had been paid to measuring pupils' progress during term time, teachers had not been put under any pressure in their teaching. On the other hand, most pupils studying Mandarin Chinese would not continue learning into the next year, as they had to pick up another language such as Spanish, German or another credit GCSE course and their schools did not provide Mandarin Chinese as a credit language

course at GCSE level. In regards to this factor, Head Teacher B and the Heads of Department D and E commented that they were at the very beginning of introducing Mandarin Chinese, and it would be a part of their future development plan, especially as they wished the pupils to take GCSE in Mandarin Chinese in the future.

7.2.4 Staff recruitment

The major challenges found from the schools' views indicate that the recruitment of quality staff was very hard for them, particularly for schools who wished to offer Mandarin as part of the curriculum in the future (see Section 4.3.1). Nowadays, the channels for recruiting teachers of Mandarin are limited. Consistent with other surveys on Mandarin Chinese teaching and learning in the UK (CILT 2007; Zhang and Li 2010) the British Council is the main agency for schools in finding a foreign language assistant for teaching Mandarin at present. The findings in this researched match the result of these studies: schools D and E set up their link schools in China, and gained a FLA via the British Council. The head teacher of school B noted in the interview that they wished to employ a teacher of Mandarin through the British Council next year, as they considered that the teacher's quality would be better than a teacher they might find themselves. Furthermore, the British Council might be able to help teachers to sort out their Visa problem, in such a case, the British Council has its own advantages in recruiting foreign language assistants which helps schools to gain teachers of Mandarin through a reliable channel.

However, in this study, all the schools sought quality staff that could teach Mandarin and develop continuity and progression for the learners of Mandarin. If they were to

rely on the British Council who offer one year FLAs as in schools D and E, or partnership schools send a teacher each year, it would be very difficult to have a different teacher each year, the pupils would not get any continuity and they would never be entirely sure of the quality of the teacher that was coming. For example, teacher B was late coming because of Visa problems, which created a significant disruption at the start of the year.

According to Zhang and Li (2010), Chinese language teaching in the British higher education system is increasing rapidly run “a range of forms-single honors, joint honors, as a constituent part or an option of a degree programme, or simply as a non-credit-bearing course”(Zhang and Li 2010, p.89). Anderson (2008) indicated that according to the schools who wished to recruit qualified teachers, the PGCE can be treated as the main route for them. Meanwhile, in the past 10 years, without the standard PGCE courses such as French, German and Spanish, many universities such as Warwick University, Goldsmiths and the University of London started offering PGCE Chinese course in order to train the teachers with the award of qualified teacher status (Anderson 2008). The above evidence shows that teaching and learning Chinese is increasing in Britain. However, compared with other European languages, few universities or language colleges offer Chinese as an independent degree to either postgraduate or undergraduate level. In this case, even where schools advertise for part-time/permanent members of staff in Chinese teaching, universities do not turn out MFL teachers that study Chinese. Schools are readily able to recruit staff who have studied for their PGCE in French, German, Spanish, Italian and even Russian. Mandarin has been started in a few universities (Zhang and Li 2010), but it will still take time to match market needs. In this study, besides the training run by the British

Council and HSBC, schools training in the teachers of Mandarin by themselves, and observing other language classes became the most common way to achieve this. Teachers of Mandarin Chinese in this research provided positive feedback on their school training, for example, for teachers B, D and E in this study, whatever input and training they had in schools, it would help them feel part of the school, and they wished to know the expectations; however, they would then return to China and the next person that came would have a similar process occurring on arrival. Consequently, there was a constant need to train new teachers and familiarize them with the culture, ethos, curriculum and assessment processes of English schools.

7.3 Classroom activities

The discussion in this section is based on the findings displayed in section 5.4.7 as well as referring to Appendices 6; 7 and 8. This section focuses on the variety of activities reported by the teachers and observed in the lessons.

According to Teacher B's classes (see Appendix 7), pupils seemed to be less motivated in talking freely or working individually and only one or two pupils sitting in front seemed to have some interaction with the teacher in her teaching process. The teacher seemed impatient sometimes when she faced such a disorganized class and paid less attention to motivating learners' interests in learning Mandarin Chinese.

The classes observed in Schools A and C had fewer games than in other schools, although Teachers B, D and E identified game play as serving a very important purpose in Mandarin Chinese teaching and learning. According to different teaching

approaches, Teachers A and C's activities aim to practice all four skills paradigms and Teachers D and E's activities tend to enhance pupils' listening and speaking skills whilst emphasizing Chinese cultural information. Hence, Teacher A and C's classes appeared to be more like language classes in China which include grammatical structures and linguistic practice.

Although section 5.4.7 reported that teachers spent a lot of time in whole class activities, this does not mean that they did not organize other forms of classroom activities. The activities during class time in Schools D and E seemed more variable than in other schools. In their classes, pupils seemed to be more motivated in small group activities and pair work. They did not group pupils by gender, interest or ability, but merely employed classroom activities randomly. The respondents claimed that different grouping strategies were seen as a positive way to help them organize the classroom, which as Pachler *et al*(2009) have noted can help language teachers to maintain pupils' interests in languages learning.

7.3.1 The balancing in language skills

The findings from both interviews with teachers of Mandarin Chinese and classroom observations analysis suggest that in this study, teachers with different teaching goals were concerned with different language skills.

As for Schools A and C, the teachers and pupils were teaching and learning to attain GCSE Chinese. GCSE classes (refer to section 5.4.8.1) in this study were concerned with all of the four language skills to meet the requirements of the GCSE Chinese

curriculum and textbooks. The situation for non-GCSE classes (refer to sections 5.4.8.2 and 5.4.8.3) in Schools B, D and E was different. The Asset assessment at the end of the school year, places more focus on communication skills, specifically related to listening and speaking practice, hence, these classes were mainly concerned with speaking and listening Mandarin Chinese. Pupils' writing practice was merely a pro forma practice, which was more like imitating what teachers wrote and pupils forgot how to write after a short period. There was no reading at all. Bearing in mind that one of the main CLT's principles is to present all language skills equally, it could be concluded that GCSE classes in Schools A and C could be considered as CLT classes, while non-GCSE classes in Schools B, D and E especially in School B could be referred to as not a CLT class from this viewpoint.

With respect to a language programme, in order to develop pupils' communicating ability, teachers have the responsibility to create opportunities for pupils to use the target language in and after classes. In balancing the language skills, Savignon (2002) suggests that each language skill in language teaching and learning reinforces all the others. This point of view was further explained by many scholars such as Aebbersold and Field (1997) and Krashen (2008); they explained that the practice of reading skills, for example, is normally not only, for its own sake, but to write a summary or a report. Furthermore, reading is a means of developing speaking ability. According to the GCSE Chinese curriculum, after each reading a passage, pupils were asked to answer certain questions by both speaking and writing. In class, Teachers A and C liked to require the pupils to give an oral summary of what was read. Thus, in order to develop pupils' communicative competence, it is important to increase their language proficiency in all the four language skills.

7.4 Pupils' and teachers' perceptions

This section addresses the research question:

What are teachers' and pupils' views about teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese?

The answer to this question emerged from teachers' interviews and pupils' questionnaires and also combined the findings gained from classroom observations. The answer to pupils' perceptions referred to questions 17, 18 and 19 in the pupils' questionnaire (see Appendix 4).

Wang's (2009) findings indicate that beginners normally show strong enthusiasm in language learning and the findings of this study confirm this hypothesis. Since most pupils participating in this study were beginners Mandarin Chinese learners, this study was conducted in the mid-term of their study and the questionnaire data shows that most of the feedback pupils gave in regards to their teachers' teaching was positive (see sections 6.12 and 6.5).

According to Savignon (1997) learning Mandarin Chinese may appear to be challenging, elitist, or exotic as learners begin to learn. Presented with the opportunity of learning Mandarin, however, they experience success and find it interesting and may wish to pursue study of the language in the longer term. In addition, as pupils in Schools B, D and E did not aim to pass the GCSE examination in Mandarin Chinese, or need to get any certification in the short term, they experienced less pressure in learning this language than pupils who treated it as a credited language course did.

This may be due to what other research evidence mentions, namely that “the community does not value fully the need for modern languages” (McPake, Lyall et al. 1999; Wang 2009, p.89).

Although the questions in the pupils’ questionnaire were more about the pupils’ views of the teaching they received, the pupils’ estimation of their success in learning Chinese appeared to be similar to what was estimated (see section 6.12).

Accordingly, the relationship and high significance between what pupils thought about themselves as a Mandarin Chinese learner and how other people around them such as their peers, parents and teachers viewed them as Mandarin Chinese learners played an important part in their perception of themselves. Pupils who considered themselves to be good learners were also seen by others as good learners. Thus, pupils’ perceptions of their teachers teaching were clearly affected by their own learning experience and what kind of evaluation other people gave them.

A further interesting factor is that pupils from Schools A and C who were in GCSE classes provided useful suggestions to the teachers regarding their own language skills and their teachers’ teaching styles. They hoped that their teachers could slow down, especially when they were teaching characters and reduce repetitions. They also suggested that teachers add more group work and pair work than work in plenary mode.

Pupils who were gifted experienced challenges, particularly at the beginning of the year, as they noticed that teachers would adapt their teaching style to match their

needs, as with other language teachers who performed successfully. Compared to most pupils who did not have that many achievements, the pupils possessed the ability to perform well.

A further issue arising from the pupils' questionnaire data shows that pupils considered that their teachers of Mandarin did not have sufficient patience to listen to their talk. The teachers adopted similar teaching methods such as using less group and pair work and had less interaction with pupils (refer to section 6.5). According to the pupils' responses, it is important to pay attention to different teaching approaches in China and Western countries. In traditional Chinese classes, teachers are the only voice in classroom; this indicated teacher's power as the unquestioned knowledge source in the class (Wu 2010).

Cortazzi & Jin's (1996) research has investigated different teaching approaches between Chinese and Western ELT (English Language Teaching): according to them, "the Chinese teachers often emphasize English language knowledge, content, teacher-centered classrooms and examination results", while Western EFL teachers pay attention to "the skills and realistic use of language, student-centered classrooms and the process of learning". Boyle (2000) further studied Hong Kong and Western ELT teachers' classroom behaviour and pointed out that Western teachers provide more chances for pupils to talk, drawing on a so called "interactive methodology". Hong Kong teachers thought having too much conversation and interaction between pupils was noisy and "disturbed adjacent classes". Boyle listed the reasons for this result: firstly, teachers in Hong Kong did not have so much time to prepare for "un-structured" teaching; secondly, English was not the teachers' first language and it

would be a challenge for them to copy and adopt “interactive methodology” in teaching; thirdly, Boyle mentioned “face”, as teachers thought if they made mistakes or failed in answering questions in front of pupils, they would be ashamed to admit that they did not understand the answers to the questions pupils raised, or be able to deal with disciplinary issues. Western teachers, however, do not consider it shameful (Boyle 2000).

7.5 Gender differences in learning Mandarin Chinese

In 2006, a book which is called “Boys and foreign language learning: Real boys don’t do language” (Carr and Anne 2006) was published in the UK. It reflected the evidence that boys’ attitude towards foreign language learning is not that positive. Decades ago, Burstall’s (1978) work had pointed that “more boys than girls felt that learning French was a waste of time and that there were more important subjects...” (p.6). However, is language learning really a girl’s business? A glance at the statistics for learning Mandarin Chinese (see Appendix 11) demonstrates that beside School C which is an all girl group, there are 39 boys attended Mandarin classes whilst only 16 girls did so in Schools A, B, D and E. It showed that more boys are interested in learning Mandarin Chinese in mixed gender schools whatever in total number or in a school by school basis. This result echoed increasing number of candidates taking GCSE Chinese which was described as “Chinese was one of only four languages (all of them the less commonly taught ones) showing higher numbers of boys than girls as candidates” (Higgins and Sheldon 2001, p.110).

Appendix 12 displayed the disparity in performance between boys’ and girls’ attitudes

towards learning Mandarin Chinese. These differ from some researchers' findings which indicated that girls have a significantly more positive attitude to foreign languages generally (Powell and Batters 1985). In this study, the overall superiority of the boys in enthusiasm, attitudes and performance which appeared in classroom observations were accentuated in the mixed schools. It is possible this was due to most of the pupils especially who were in School B, D and E were in their first year study of Mandarin Chinese. Based on their findings, some researchers (Powell and Batters 1985; Clark and Trafford 1996; Clark 1998) claimed that boys' enthusiasm of learning language would quickly diminish, especially throughout the second or third year study. It is interesting to mention that boys in School A had more than 1 year learning experience. However, as statistics showed in Appendix 12, the boys did not decline their interests after a period of study in Mandarin Chinese. Furthermore, 80% (4 in 5) of them confirmed that they would continue learning Mandarin Chinese in the future. It would be very helpful if this study would get chance to compare the scores gained by boys and girls in the different school settings. It is in order to explore learners' learning goals and their attitudes towards achievements.

Vygotsky (1994) emphasized that "class character, class nature and class distinctions ... are responsible for the formation of human types" (p.176). He argued that social environment is structured by amount of class membership. Based on his social-cultural theory, numerous studies by ethnographic researchers (Wilcox 1988; Rist 2000) have focused on the issue of social class as a factor in schools and classrooms (Panofsky 2003, p.6). According to class in schooling, Ratner (2000) given out five dimensions: "reflects, facilities activities, concepts, artifacts and psychological phenomena" (p.4). He argued that in schools in different social classes

are with different contexts and activities. As it was mentioned earlier, the five schools in this research represented a range of different types of schools (referred to Table 3.4). Obviously, those schools belong to different social classes. It is interesting to ascertain whether there are any gender differences existed between schools in different social classes. The result showed that boys and girls in this survey generally held the similar views about learning Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language. One interesting finding is the responses of boys in School A (Grammar School with high achievement) and School B (as its Head Teacher described, it is located in a poor area and teaches pupils from working class). Regarding to the question “why do you want to choose Mandarin?” nearly 73% of the boys in School B chose “interested in it” or “I like Chinese food” or left comments as “I would like to go to visit it” or “I don’t like learning French”; whilst 80% of the boys from School A left comments such as “it will be useful in the future” or “I want to become a games designer and supposedly Chinese and Japanese are the best”. It is possible a view to reflect that learners in Grammar schools were learning for future career rather than limited in their instantly personal feeling in a specific language learning experience and its relevant culture.

Conclusion

This chapter has sought to discuss the issues arising from the findings. The current research aimed to explore the reasons that occurred in the schools' decisions to introduce Mandarin Chinese as a new language. Chapter 4 presented the result that schools wished to introduce Mandarin because they thought introducing this popular language would help their schools to become different from other schools, attract parents' attention and provide pupils with greater opportunities to learn new languages, which would help their study in college and career development in the future. They also began to introduce Mandarin Chinese because they had established link schools in China. This worked as a channel to improve schools' communication between different cultures.

This study has set objectives to investigate how teachers taught. It has included teaching methods and the pedagogy by which teachers engaged in their teaching and the teaching goals they strive for. It has also attempted to provide a voice to teachers of Mandarin by seeking perceptions of their own experiences. The findings from the teachers of Mandarin reflected their challenging role in teaching Mandarin as a new language in secondary schools in England. Teachers are facing both challenges and pressures to adjust their role in a totally new society. As they have been influenced by traditional teaching methods in China, they had to study and change their teaching approach to match English pupils' needs; otherwise, they will find it difficult to engage in appropriate interaction with their pupils. For School A and C, pupils were learning towards a GCSE in Mandarin and in School B, D and E, teachers' teaching

goals were more associated with introducing a new language and its culture to pupils than systemic language learning.

This study has also identified pupils' views about learning Mandarin and themselves as Chinese language learners. The majority of pupils showed an interest in learning Mandarin; however when this language became more difficult, most of them lost their enthusiasm towards learning. This revealed that teachers' approaches and their attitudes to pupils affected pupils learning motivation. Pupils' perceptions of their teachers were, furthermore, influenced by their teachers' teaching.

The next chapter will summarize the conclusions of the current study, outline the contributions to theory and practice, and also discuss recommendations for future study.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

Introduction

The current research sought to explore the reasons for schools' decisions to introduce Mandarin Chinese as a new language to its pupils. It set objectives to investigate how teachers taught and included teaching methods and the pedagogy that teachers engaged in their teaching whilst considering the teaching goals they worked towards. It attempted to give a voice to teachers of Mandarin Chinese in order to gain their perceptions of their experiences and further identifies pupils' views about learning Mandarin as Chinese language learners. This research endeavours to make a contribution to the teaching and learning of Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language especially in a English speaking context. It is hoped that the findings can inform the schools and relevant organizations e.g. the British Council as to what support teachers of Mandarin need before and during their teaching in an English context. It sheds light on pupils' experiences of learning Mandarin as a new foreign language which is used to inform the practices of teachers and other educators.

The current chapter includes four parts; firstly, it shares the key research findings from the methodology adopted, namely interviews, observations and questionnaires. Secondly, it analyses the limitations of this study and the advanced suggestions to improve it. Thirdly, it considers the contribution of the study for different practitioners in introducing Mandarin Chinese and the experience of teachers

attempting teach Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language in an English context. Finally, it offers several recommendations for further research.

8.1 Overview of key research findings

This section provides a summary of the key findings collected by different research tools in this research.

8.1.1 Findings from interviews with Head Teachers and the Heads of Department

The findings from the interviews with head Teachers and Heads of MFL department were presented in Chapter 4 which related to the research question - *What are the reasons for introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language in a sample of schools in the English context?* The responses gained highlighted the different reasons for introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new language into their schools. The majority of participants indicated that having link schools in China was the key reason in deciding to introduce Mandarin Chinese into their schools; they treated it as an enjoyable and rewarding way for teachers and pupils in schools, in the two countries, to communicate with each other, for example, the visits between head teachers and cultural exchange trips for teachers and pupils. Schools in England employed Mandarin speaker assistants from their partner schools through the British Council Chinese language assistant programme and all participants emphasised that introducing Mandarin is preparation for both schools and their pupils to face the issues of globalisation, whilst participants revealed that language teaching is a fundamental concerned in citizenship education in the national curriculum. Schools wished to build a citizenship dimension into language teaching, in detail, they

believed that learning a foreign language would help their pupils open a door to a different and exciting world which is diverse in cultural experiences. Having a teacher from the native country would improve or create pupils' understandings and their knowledge of the language and its culture. This means drawing on learners' lived experience rather than on essentialised notion of the culture of the country of origin" (Anderson and Chung 2011, p.3). At the moment, foreign travel is becoming increasingly common" (Anderson 2008, p.84), more and more Chinese tourists visited England, thus learning Mandarin provides opportunities for pupils to understand Chinese people, Chinese language and its culture. Furthermore, participants indicated that introducing Mandarin Chinese could make their schools different to other local schools. They believed that being able to speak Mandarin would increase pupils' professional opportunities, chances of entering college and university, and may lead to a better career and higher wages in the future.

Meanwhile, Head Teachers and Heads of Department pointed to the challenges they met. The problems they indicated echoed the community language's situation in the United States which as Brecht and Ingold (2002) argue are "funding, teacher training, appropriate instructional materials, and administrative infrastructure" (cited in Anderson 2008, p.284). Findings revealed that schools with FLAs wished they would have a permanent teacher of Mandarin Chinese, as it is the way to ensure progression and continuity of pupils' learning. Furthermore, findings from interviews with Heads of Department showed some FLAs also underwent problems in employing English teachers to teach Chinese to a group of English native speakers. These findings suggested that learning Chinese in schools is part of an important development towards globalization and a drive to increase pupils' awareness of the importance of

Chinese language (Anderson 2008), but equally, that such a development needs appropriate support and resourcing to sustain its development.

8.1.2 Findings from interviews with Teachers of Mandarin Chinese

The findings reveal that all 5 teachers within the interviews were English teachers in China before they started teaching Mandarin Chinese in England and because of a lack of professional training in teaching Chinese as a foreign language to English pupils they were not ready to meet the needs of English instructions. They looked for both pre- and in – service professional development.

As distinct from traditional European languages in the national curriculum, Mandarin Chinese gained less support in the form of schemes of work and other guidance (Anderson 2008), especially in regards to the schools who were not teaching Mandarin Chinese to meet GCSE Chinese exams such as Schools B, D and E in this research. Teachers of Chinese complained that they had no idea of school curriculum plans and suggested they did not have a clear structure to follow. For teachers B and D, they did not even have ideas of the content of the final examinations. These faint teaching goals led teachers to feel lost in teaching which affected their teaching methods in practice as well.

The findings also revealed that teachers of Mandarin Chinese were used to following detailed guidelines of official curriculum or examination framework, however, findings from the interviews with FLAs suggested that working within detailed

guidelines or previous years' schemes of work facilitated FLAs' understanding of local pupils' needs and task requirements. Without a proper understanding of such, the scheme of work they created was not suitable for learners in this country. Feedback from Teachers A and C were more positive; they were satisfied with a textbook series *GCSE for Chinese*; they used to follow the national curriculum guideline that required them to relate their instructions to fit into pupils' learning and requirements for GCSE examinations. Recalling their early teaching time, although Teachers A and C agreed that lack of resources suitable for pupils in an English context was a serious problem in teaching, they still believed that the teachers' attitudes had more impact on which teaching methods they adopted and in motivating pupils' learning.

Compared with classroom activities FLAs arranged in classes in China, they designed more games for Chinese language learners in order to attract their attention in their learning. Pupils' misbehaviour always interrupted their teaching; findings indicated that all FLAs emphasized the importance of working with a permanent staff in the class, asserting that FLAs enabled the management pupils' misbehaviour.

These findings contributed to the present picture of teachers of Mandarin Chinese's situation in an English context; meanwhile several difficulties were identified, such as, different cultural and language competences; lack of suitable resources; difficulties in classroom management; and the shortage of pre- and in-service professional training. These difficulties sometimes contributed to poor teaching results as well as

influencing both teachers' and pupils' motivation, and fostering their self-doubts about achieving good outcomes.

8.1.3 Findings from classroom observations

Findings from classroom observations can be grouped in two; GCSE and non-GCSE classes. Compared the data collected from these two groups, due to different teaching approaches, teachers employed different teaching methods whilst arranging different classroom activities. Accordingly, in regards to GCSE examinations, GCSE classes focused on all language skills' practice and engaged in more learning of grammatical rules; while in non-GCSE classes, teachers had little attention on grammar when they were working with pupils. Teachers in non-GCSE classes were used to arranging various games to produce more chances for pupils to practice their speaking skills. Thus, GCSE classes were more teacher-centered classes, as pupils spent time listening to teachers presenting knowledge and dealing with multifarious exercises. Pupils had homework after each Mandarin lesson to reinforce the knowledge they learned. However, it is hard to define that all non-GCSE classes were learner-centered classes, even though pupils were learning through play. The data analysis indicated that some non-GCSE classes particularly in School B which were without tutor support were disordered.

A further important finding from classroom observations was that most of the non-GCSE classes disregarded assessment for learning in day to day practice, which played an important role in the enhancement of both teaching and learning. It is

dangerous to teach and learn without an assessment criteria as “assessment for learning is the process of seeking and interpreting evidence for use by learners and their teachers to decide where the learners are in their learning, where they need to go and how best to get there” (DCSF 2008, p.3). This research has identified that the lack of assessment criteria affected teachers’ teaching and pupils’ learning in non-GCSE classes. Firstly, teachers and pupils did not have any clear ideas about the objectives of their teaching and learning. This made them focus on their plans more closely. Secondly, a lack of assessment criteria led to teachers not having the chance to track pupils’ progress systematically. It might also decrease both teachers’ and pupils’ motivation in teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese as they had no clue on how much achievement they already have, hence, there was an urgent necessary to obtain assessment criteria in every Chinese language classes, in order to enhance both teaching and learning.

8.1.4 Findings from questionnaires to pupils

Chapter 6 presented in detail the research findings from pupils’ feedback of learning Mandarin Chinese in a sample of schools in an English context. In relation to the quantitative data, the study showed that the majority of pupils showed interest in learning Mandarin, which is very different from other subjects. Essentially, the respondents brought different rationales, expectations, and attitudes to their learning experiences. From the findings, it appears that pupils understand that Chinese is a widely used language in the world and that learning Mandarin is being able to experience Chinese language and its culture. Findings indicated that nearly a quarter of respondents thought that they could keep learning Mandarin and they believed that

being able to speak Mandarin would increase their chances of entering college or university, whilst providing more opportunities in their career development in the future. However, many learners show great interests and passion in learning Mandarin at the beginning but their enthusiasm decreased when learning got harder. Overall, the findings reveal that pupils had a positive attitude to their teachers, however, many pupils claimed that their teachers taught too fast and organised few group and pair work and the whole class worked together most of the time.

8.2 Limitations of the research

This research was designed to explore the rationale for introducing Mandarin Chinese in schools in an English context; teaching and learning in practice and pupils' and teachers' perceptions of their learning and teaching experience. However, due to the shortage of participants, constraints of personal funding and the small scale perspective certain limitations are inevitable in the research design. In this regard, I will seek to identify the limitation of this study.

It is important to mention that the number of schools focused upon in this study was very small and as mentioned in chapter 3, this study started in 2007. The reason for involving five schools was the concern regarding the efficacy of time and resources when doing the research. There were very few schools that were teaching Mandarin Chinese, especially those teaching Mandarin Chinese as part of the curriculum rather than simply as a lunch club. The schools in my study were thus chosen for pragmatic reasons, additionally, because of the limitations of funding, it was impossible to find schools situated a long way away from the university I was studying in and to spend

many hours travelling to collect data. By being aware of the potential limits of representativeness of Mandarin Chinese teaching and learning in the whole of England, this research has only drawn on what is happening in Coventry, Warwickshire and Gloucestershire. Subsequently, any attempt to reflect instead of generalize regarding the education system and practice within an English context focused on a sample of schools, and an attempt to match these schools to the general perspective.

At the very beginning, when I was conducting this research, I wished to return to the schools the following year to follow the same groups of teachers and pupils who were teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese to explore more factors and increase the evaluation of this research. However, when I was undertaking data collection in schools, I recognized that the foreign language assistants in Schools B, D and E were likely to return to China after one year of teaching and Teacher A planned to leave School A and start work in School C from the new coming teaching year. Meanwhile, most of the pupils who were in the Mandarin Chinese class in Schools B, D and E were likely to quit and change to a credited GCSE course for their GCSE examinations in the future. In schools A and C, some pupils wished to leave their Mandarin Chinese classes as they felt Chinese was too hard for them to learn, or they were not interested in this course. The following year, I returned to all these schools and tried to engage in deeper data collection; however, the situation was very similar to what I had observed the previous year. All these factors lessened the value of my return visits.

By conducting this research, however, I not only obtained first-hand knowledge about the reality of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in a sample of schools in an English context, but most importantly, it has enhanced my personal abilities in terms of academic insights and research skills. Undertaking research overseas has proven to be a challenging personal experience for a single Chinese female research student in terms of the language skills, academic skills, understanding of the education system in England and the national curriculum.

8.3 The research contributions

This section considers the contributions of the current research to the field of introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new subject in secondary schools in the English context.

Firstly, the five secondary schools in this research belong to three types of educational establishments; grammar state school, independent boarding school and state schools with different specialised areas of the curriculum. It is useful to gain findings from participants from a variety of social-cultural backgrounds.

Secondly, the findings reported in this study placed the motivations for secondary schools in England introducing Mandarin as a new optional foreign language. The issue of motivation remains central to language learning, especially within the secondary school environment, where language learning is not always seen as an

attractive proposition by pupils and where initial enthusiasm may wane very quickly once the reality of studying a language sets in.

Thirdly, for foreign language assistants, the findings suggest that training before they come to teach Mandarin in England and in-service training should be the initial consideration of developing the introduction of Mandarin not only in secondary schools but in all schools which have FLs in an English context.

Fourthly, the findings from all participants in this study present a picture of the current situation of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in England. They cover the schools' motivation for introducing Mandarin, teachers' teaching methods, perceptions, attitudes towards their teaching experiences and pupils' views about their learning experiences.

Fifthly, although this is not a comparative study, it highlights several comparative factors in teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese. The key point is a comparison of teachers' teaching methods in traditional Chinese and English language classes from teachers' interviews and classroom observations; for example, it mentioned teachers' attitudes towards the application of textbooks and the management of classroom activities. The comparisons present a vivid picture of Chinese language teaching in England and it helps people to understand the difficulties teachers of Mandarin could meet in their teaching. It also showed schools and relevant organisations e.g. the British Council what FLAs need before and during their teaching in England.

Finally, there are some issues of consideration of the implications for policy makers, both in China and in the UK. Firstly, referred to link schools, it is important to find schools in both countries which have similar backgrounds with similar achievements to set up relationship. It would be earlier for them to share resources and decrease communication gaps between different expectations. Secondary, as it was mentioned earlier, how to recruit qualified teacher of Mandarin Chinese especially one year FLAs and provide them efficient and continued training before and during their teaching in the UK is an essential issue in introducing Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language. Having qualified teachers would help schools to set up a more stable and robust learning environment for learners. Thirdly, fortunately, nowadays, there are more new textbooks coming to the market, teachers have more choices of teaching materials. However, as findings presented in this research, some teachers especially FLAs felt hard to adopted those materials. According to their feedback, it is necessary to have a workable curriculum for teaching Mandarin Chinese in mainstream schools but not for GCSE exams. Aimed to meet the targeting at exam syllables, assorted teaching materials are requested. Fourthly, because of the disparities of understanding of policy and levels of teaching experience, skills, methods and resource with practitioners, there is limited communication between policy makers and practitioners to discuss the issues and improve the policy. Above considerations of implication are not only towards state schools or independent schools in England, they also would work in introducing Mandarin Chinese in other organisations, or education institutions such Confucius classrooms or Chinese community schools.

8.3.1 Theoretical contribution

This research contributed to the understanding of introducing Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language into secondary schools in England. Drawing on a number of factors, it gives a voice to schools, teachers of Mandarin Chinese which include permanent staffs and one year FLAs and pupils, whilst highlighting experiences and perceptions of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese. It further explored the rationales of introducing English speaking learners to learn Mandarin Chinese in the given context. A range of data was collected by both qualitative and quantitative research tools, and the problems existed in practice made teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese seem more “real” and fun for the learners. It also highlighted that in GCSE classes, pupils gained practices in all four language skills while pupils in non-GCSE classes only had chance to practise their oral skills. Meanwhile, all teachers of Mandarin Chinese emphasised CLT as their teaching approach. However, the research revealed a gap between teachers’ understanding of CLT and their practice. The research also discovered the situation of FLAs in teaching Mandarin Chinese as a foreign language, and how their attitudes towards their one year teaching abroad affect their teaching and pupils’ learning.

8.4 Recommendations for further research

There are several recommendations for strengthening the relevant research findings for further study.

Firstly, in the present study, teachers' perspectives were focused upon and explored through in-depth interviews. Pupils' perspectives were gained by questionnaires due to the limited time between lessons; pupils did not have time to be interviewed. One possibility for future research is to look into the appropriateness and effectiveness of teaching and learning Mandarin Chinese in secondary schools in an English context from pupils' perspectives not only via questionnaire but in-depth interviews. This would enable learners' preferred ways of teaching to be investigated, which is considered by them as effective.

Secondly, teachers of Chinese, especially one year FLAs' voices need to be heard. A study of FLAs would be valuable. FLAs are coming to teach in England for one school year, so the kind of support, such as training they need and the challenges they meet during their teaching, need to be explored. Findings from this research reflected the fact that careful preparation beforehand which may include an understanding the English education system and the application of textbook can reduce the risk of failure of their teaching in English secondary schools.

Thirdly, I would like to suggest an experimental study in one English secondary school. The researcher might spend more than one year and follow the same group of pupils to investigate that group of pupils' experiences of learning Mandarin; this would pay attention to the continuity and progression of teaching and learning of Mandarin Chinese.

Fourthly, as was mentioned earlier, the findings of this study were gained from 5 schools in England. Due to the differentiations of schools' types, learners in the five schools were from different socio-cultural backgrounds. For further study, it would be helpful to conduct research in one school and analyse the grounded data of the selected sample within its own context. It would enrich the data from the specific type of school, rather than merely providing a generalised analysis.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study has helped to understand the current situation of introducing Mandarin Chinese as a new foreign language in secondary schools in an English context. These findings may be considered useful in providing support for introducing Mandarin at secondary school level in England.

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Appendix

Appendix 1 Interview questions for Heads of schools and Heads of Department (guide)

1. What is in your opinion, the ethos of the students towards learning, learning to learn and developing students' personal attitudes?
2. (according to their answers in questionnaire) Why do/did you want to introduce Mandarin?

3. Do you treat Mandarin learning as a special case or just simply treat it like the learning of any language subject on the school curriculum?
4. Is there a scheme of work? How is it used?
5. Are you teaching Chinese culture in other modules e.g. history, geography?
6. How do you get textbooks, teachers and other resources for Mandarin? Have you heard about Hanban or the Confucius Institute?
7. Is there any special training for MFL teachers, especially for teachers of Mandarin?
8. What is your teaching target? Exam? What kind of exam? Or is the aim just to broaden pupils' understanding of a new culture?
9. What are the students' backgrounds? (Nationalities, native languages, parents' levels of education, social background).
10. Are there any differences between your expectations before starting Mandarin and the situation now?
11. So far, what is the biggest problem/challenge in Mandarin teaching and learning? Why?
12. What has been the most positive aspect?
13. How are pupils/teachers/parents reacting to the introduction of Mandarin?
14. Do you undertake any activities on Chinese culture?
15. Does the school have any plans for developing MFL, especially Mandarin in the future?

Appendix 2 Interview questions to teachers (guide)

1. When did you start to teach Mandarin?
2. Do you have any relevant training?
3. Why do you teach Mandarin?
4. How do you teach? (If (s)he was teaching in China, compare to his/her teaching experience in Chinese class)

5. What is your teaching approach? Why?
6. What are your teaching goals? (Compared to his/her teaching experience before)
7. What do you teach in your class? (e.g. only pronunciation, writing or much more cultural events)
8. Which textbook do you use? Do you use other resources and do you add any other information into the class?
9. In your class, why do your students want to adopt Mandarin into their curriculum?
10. How do you help learners to learn and implement what they learn?
11. What are the difficulties for your teaching and students' learning? What are the positive aspects?
12. How do you assess learners' learning results?
13. How do you think learners' see learning generally?
14. Do you have any suggestions or advice for other Teachers of Mandarin in England?
15. Based on your experience, is there anything that can be improved in Mandarin teaching and learning?

Appendix 3 Lesson observation pro forma

Lesson observation pro forma

NB- I would suggest using other papers for note taking, this form therefore to be completed during or after the lesson, with some information possibly completed beforehand.

Background information

1. School:			
2. Teacher:			
3. Year group(s)			4. No. of pupils:
5. Time/length of lesson:	classroom layout:		
6. Lesson plan	Available? Attached to observation? Evidence of scheme of work?		
7. Any other relevant details:			
8. Resources used (and how)			
(For example: audio, visual, ICT, books, toys, PPT, pictures or other materials.)			
9. Target language issues			
9.1 Target language use by teacher (e.g. for classroom instructions/comments, for 'content' only, for praise ...)			
9.2 Target language use by pupils (e.g. responding to questions, 'drills', spontaneous ...)			
9.3 Language used for			
9.4 Other comments re language use			
10. Lesson content (linguistic, culture and other)			

10.1 (Also comment on model - Lg. Competence, Sensitisation/encounter, Cross-curricular, Language awareness, culture awareness)			
10.2 How is the language sequenced?			
Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
10.3 Evidence of <i>formative</i> assessment		Evidence of <i>summative</i> assessment	
10.4 Activities (e.g. repetition, song, pair work, whole class, drama, grammar ...)			
10.5 Teacher centre or learner centre teaching method?			

11. Pupils	
11.1 Involvement of pupils	
11.2 Pupils aware of lesson content/purpose?	
11.3 Evidence of special needs provision/planning	
11.4 Evidence of G&T provision/planning	
11.5 Equal opportunities issues?	
11.6 Students' interaction with teacher	

Appendix 4 Questionnaires to Pupils

Dear pupil,

My name is Lida Xie. I am currently a PhD student at the Institute of Education, Warwick University, and I am supervised by Ms. Marilyn Hunt and Dr. Jane Medwell. My research looks at Mandarin Chinese, a language now officially available for study at KS3 and being chosen by a growing number of British primary and secondary

schools. The study aims to investigate how and why Mandarin Chinese is introduced in a sample of secondary schools in England.

I would greatly appreciate it if you would answer the following questionnaire. I hope that it should take you no more than 10 minutes.

Your answers will only be used for research purposes and treated confidentially and anonymously throughout this project. If you have any queries about the questionnaire, please feel free to contact me via email: Lida.Xie@warwick.ac.uk

Thank you very much for your time.

Part A: Personal Details

1. Age:
2. Gender: ☐Female ☐Male
3. What language do you speak at home?

4. How many languages do you know? When did you start to learn it/them?

Part B: about learning Mandarin

5. When did you start learning Mandarin?
6. Do you enjoy your Mandarin class? Why?
- ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Sometimes
7. Compared to other foreign languages, are there any special difficulties in learning Mandarin?
8. Do you like your Mandarin teacher? Why?
- ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Sometimes
9. Why do you want to choose Mandarin?
- ☐ I am interested in it ☐ I do not like other language courses
- ☐ I like Chinese food ☐ other:
10. What do you usually do during the Mandarin lesson?
- ☐ listening ☐ reading ☐ writing ☐ speaking
- ☐ peer work ☐ group work ☐ whole class work
- ☐ ICT ☐ drama ☐ other
11. What do you like most about learning Mandarin?
- ☐ Pronunciation ☐ Chinese characters ☐ writing
- ☐ Mandarin teacher ☐ Chinese stories ☐ speaking
- ☐ Reading ☐ teacher's teaching method listening?
- ☐ Other:
12. Is it different from your other language (French/German/Spanish) lessons?
- What are they?

13. What do you like least about learning Mandarin?

☐ Pronunciation ☐ Chinese characters ☐ writing

☐ Mandarin teacher ☐ Chinese stories ☐ speaking

☐ Reading ☐ teacher's teaching method listening?

☐ Other:

Please comment:

14. Do you think learning Mandarin helps you do other subjects better? How?

15. Will you continue learning Mandarin?

16. Do your parents support you learning Mandarin?

17. What do you think about the way your teachers teach Mandarin?

18. Do you have any suggestions, advice for your teachers?

19. What aspects of China and Chinese culture would you like to know about ?

Appendix 5 Questionnaires to Head of School/Head of Foreign Languages Department

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am currently a PhD student at the Institute of Education, Warwick University, and I am supervised by Ms. Marilyn Hunt and Dr. Jane Medwell. My research looks at

Mandarin Chinese, a language now officially available for study at KS3 and being chosen by a growing number of British primary and secondary schools. The study aims to investigate the motivational factors (why schools choose to teach Mandarin Chinese) and to analyse how exactly it is implemented.

I would greatly appreciate it if you would answer the following questionnaire. I hope that it should take you no more than 10 minutes.

Your answers will only be used for research purposes and treated confidentially and anonymously throughout this project. If you have any queries about the questionnaire, please feel free to contact me via email: Lida.Xie@warwick.ac.uk

Thank you very much for your time.

1. The name of your school:
2. What is the model of Modern Foreign Language (MFL) provision in your school (languages and years available)?
3. When did you start introducing Mandarin Chinese?

4. Why did you want to start Mandarin Chinese?
5. How many Chinese teachers do you have?
6. How do you recruit teacher of Mandarin? How do you recruit other MFL teachers?
7. Are textbooks/learning materials readily available for Chinese courses?
8. Is Mandarin Chinese taught as a club or as part of the curriculum?
9. Are you teaching for interest only or for any other teaching targets e.g. to pass national exams ?
10. Besides Mandarin, is any other Chinese language taught e.g. Cantonese?

11. Besides language, is Chinese taught in other subjects e.g. history, geography etc.?

14. Does the school have any plan for developing MFL/Mandarin courses in the future?

Any further comments:

Thank you for your help!

Appendix 6 Example of lesson -GCSE class

Class: Lower class 3;

Duration: 60 minutes; 11.10am-12.10pm

Learning Objectives: To learn vocabulary and sentence structures about occupations.

Lesson outcome: by the end of this lesson, pupils will be able to: 1) use the 6 new words in four skills: doctor, artist, engineer, teacher, business person and worker; 2) tell each other their parents' occupations using sentence patterns: is your father a doctor or not? My father is a doctor.

Considerations from previous lesson: Revising family members.

Timing	Teaching Strategies/Activities	L1/L2 used for
11.10- 11.15am	Greeting, registration & warm up dialogues using daily expressions	L2, Q/A
11.15- 11.20am	Present objectives and revising The Simpson's Family	L2, Q/A by individual pupil and whole class discuss

11.20- 11.25am	Listen to new words with text books and learn to say	L2, following video and resorting to L1 to help pupils' understanding of new characters
11.25- 11.33am	Practise with pictures & hiding games to find the missing word	Using L2 most of the time, using L1 when the teacher was introducing games.
11.33- 11.40am	Write down new characters in exercise books	Writing
11.40- 11.55am	Read & Match game to make sure new characters mastered; practice to recognize new characters with pictures	Q/A drill, L2 – new characters L1- linking words
11.45- 11.53am	Conversations: 4 pupils in a group	L1-analyse, L2-drills in speaking
11.53- 12.05pm	Follow patterns to write sentences	L2-writing
12.05- 12.10pm	Plenary: Check what they have learned today with slideshow orally and final assessment.	L2 Q/A drill

Appendix 7 Example of lesson- in School B

Year 8;

Duration: 60 minutes; 10am-11am

Learning Objectives: To learn vocabulary and sentence structures to introduce yourself and 'what's your hobby'.

Lesson outcome: by the end of this lesson, pupils will be able to: 1) use new words in listening and speaking skills: in/at, where, living room, hobby, dog, music; 2) understand and use sentence patterns: I am (name). I am (age). I am British. I have (a dog). It is (name). I like (bread).

Timing	Teaching Strategies/Activities	L1/L2 used for
10-10.02am	Greeting	L2, Q/A. one pupil played role as a teacher, say '起立' (stand up), others stand up then, and they say hello to each other in Chinese.

10.02- 10.25am	Teaching new words by writing on white board.	L2 for content and resorting to L1 to help pupils' understanding of new characters. Pupils copied teacher's pronunciation.
10.25- 10.40am	Making sentences and introduce yourself.	Drills. L2 for content and used by teacher most of the time. Pupils copied teacher's pronunciation but found it hard to speak independently.
10.40- 10.50am	Exercises: True or False -- teacher is speaking in Chinese and the answer in the paper is in English, pupils need to identify whether the answer matches the meaning of what the teacher said.	L2 by teacher all the time. Pupils asked questions in L1.
10.50- 11.00am	Revise what they learnt.	Teacher asked questions in L2, and pupils responded in L1. They said goodbye in L2.

Appendix 8 Example of lesson- in Schools D and E

Year 7;

Duration: 50 minutes; 10am-10.50am

Learning Objectives: To learn vocabulary and sentence structures about fruit.

Lesson outcome: by the end of this lesson, pupils will be able to: 1) use new words in listening, speaking and writing in pinyin skills: pear, apple, banana, grape and orange; 2) understand and use sentence patterns: what do you like (to eat/drink)? I (dis)like + fruits and food; 3) practice: A tells B what they like or dislike, and B tells C what A likes or dislikes; 4) revise vocabulary they learnt, and try to use them as much as possible.

Timing	Teaching Strategies/Activities	L1/L2 used for
10-10.03am	Greeting, registration	L2, Q/A
10.03-10.10am	Starter: Revising food they learnt	L2 for content and L1 most of the time, Q/A by individual pupil and whole class discuss with pictures

		in PPT.
10.10- 10.20am	Teaching new words by showing pictures with Pinyin and characters in PPT, and pupils followed teacher's pronunciation, and wrote them down in notebook in Pinyin.	L2, and resorting to L1 to help pupils' understanding of new characters
10.20- 10.25am	Introducing and practising making sentences:	Using L2 in introducing new patterns, L1 in analyses.
10.25- 10.30am	Class survey: interview 3 of your classmates about what kind of fruits or drinks they like. Fill in the form with answers you get.	Most of pupils preferred to use L1 to gain answers.
10.30- 10.35am	Report answers.	L2.
10.35- 10.45am	Follow patterns to write a short paragraph about your favourite food in Pin yin. (4 sentences). Raise your hands when you finish, and the teacher will go to have a check.	Pupils were using L1 to find out their answers and look for right words in L2 to finish the sentences.
10.45- 10.50am	Plenary: Repeat what they have learned today.	L1 most of the time, and L2 for content.

Appendix 9 Example of 'Read and Match Game' (link Chinese, pinyin and English which have the same meaning)

Exercise:

Result:

Chinese	Pinyin	English	Chinese	Pinyin	English
(pronunciation)					
a.医生	1. Gōng Rén	A. doctor	a	6	A
b.画家	2. Shāng Rén	B. artist	b	5	B
c.工程师	3. Jiào Shī	C. engineer	c	4	C
d.教师	4. Gōng Chéng Shī	D. teacher	d	3	D
e.商人	5. Huà Jiā	E.businessma n	e	2	E
f.工人	6. Yī Shēng	F. worker	f	1	F

Appendix 10 Pupils' interview form in classroom practices

Name	Lí	Píng Guǒ	Xiāng Jiāo	Pú Táo	Jú Zǐ

Appendix 11 Attendance

Gender	Which school are you from?	Number
Male	School A	5

	School B	13
	School C	0
	School D	11
	School E	10
	Total	39
Female	School A	1
	School B	4
	School C	27
	School D	5
	School E	6
	Total	43


Appendix 12 Gendered attitudes towards learning Mandarin Chinese

		School A		School B		School C		School D		School E	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Question 6 Do you enjoy your Mandarin class?	Yes	3	1	10	4		21	8	4	6	4
	No										
	Sometimes	2		3			5	3	1	4	2
Question 8 Do you like your Mandarin teacher?	Yes	5	1	11	4		26	10	5	10	5
	No										
	Sometimes			2			1	1			1
Question 11 Is it different from your other language lesson	Yes	4	1	13	3		25	10	5	8	6
	No									1	
	Sometimes	1			1		2	1		1	
Question 13 Does Mandarin helps you do other subject?	Yes	1		5			5	6	2		1
	No	2		4	1		11	1		2	2
	Unsure	2	1	4	3		11	4	3	8	4
Question 14 Will you continue learning Mandarin?	Yes	4	1	9	3		23	10	4	4	5
	No						2			4	
	Unsure	1		3	1		1			2	1
	Missing			1			1	1	1		
Question 15 Do your parents support you learning Mandarin?	Yes	5		7	2		26	8	5	4	4
	No			2				2		1	2
	I don't know		1	3	2		1	1		5	
	Missing			1							


Appendix 13 Sample of Edexcel textbook

K. Carruthers (2009) Edexcel GCSE Chinese Student Book Publisher: Edexcel


CHAPTER 1




a 起床 qǐ chuáng




b 吃早饭 chī zǎo fàn




c 上班 shàng bān




d 下班 xià bān




e 回家 huí jiā




f 吃晚饭 chī wǎn fàn



g 看电视 kàn diàn shì




h 听音乐 tīng yīn yuè



i 睡觉 shuì jiào

2 Listen to the description of Li Dong's father's day.
Answer the questions in English.

- 1 What time does Li Dong's father get up?
- 2 How does Li Dong's father go home?
- 3 What does he eat for dinner?
- 4 Does he watch TV or listen to music after dinner?
- 5 What time does Li Dong's father go to bed?



GRAMMAR: Subject + time + verb

Follow the pattern *subject + time + verb (action)* when talking about daily routine. For example:
妈妈六点半起床。Mum gets up at 6.30. (Literally: Mum 6.30 gets up.)

GRAMMAR: Time + manner + place

Remember the word order *time + manner + place*. For example, if the question is 你每天怎么来学校? (How do you come to school every day?), the answer could be 我每天 (time) 坐公共汽车 (manner) 来学校 (place). I come to school by bus every day. (Literally: I every day take the bus come to school.)
Note the use of the question word 怎么 to mean 'how' when asking about means of transport.

3 Interview your classmates. Copy the chart below and record your results.

Get up at...	Go to school by...	Get home at...	Watch TV/listen to music at...	Go to bed at...

- 1 你几点起床? (e.g. 我六点半起床。)
- 2 你怎么来学校? (e.g. 我坐公共汽车来学校。)
- 3 你几点回家? (e.g. 我四点回家。)
- 4 你每天在家看电视还是听音乐? (e.g. 我每天在家听音乐。)
- 5 你几点睡觉? (e.g. 我十一点差一刻睡觉。)

4 Write a short paragraph about a set of imaginary parents. Include their names, age, job and a brief account of their daily routine.

+ 13

Appendix14 A sample of Edexcel textbook content

K. Carruthers (2009) Edexcel GCSE Chinese Student Book Publisher: Edexcel

4 媒体 <small>miǎ tǐ</small> MEDIA			
复习 <small>fù xī</small>	Review	Understanding basic information about media	64
1 BBC 和 CCTV <small>BBC hé CCTV</small>	1 BBC and CCTV	Giving opinions about the media	66
2 电视 <small>diàn shì</small>	2 Television	Giving opinions about programmes	68
3 上网 <small>shàng wǎng</small>	3 Surfing the net	Talking about preferences	70
4 电影和音乐 <small>diàn yǐng hé yīn yuè</small>	4 Film and music	Talking about films and music	72
5 名人 <small>míng rén</small>	5 Celebrities	Talking about people's lives	74
6 不同的生活 <small>bù tóng de shēng huó</small>	6 Different lives	Making comparisons	76
听力和阅读 <small>tīng lì hé yuè dú</small>	Exam – Listening and Reading	Preparing for the Listening and Reading exam	78
口语 <small>kǒu yǔ</small>	Speaking assessment	Preparing for a speaking task (open interaction)	80
写作 <small>xiě zuò</small>	Writing assessment	Preparing for an extended writing task about films	82
重要语言点 <small>zhòng yào yǔ yán diǎn</small>	Key language	Key words and phrases in Chapter 4	84
5 我住的地方 <small>wǒ zhù de dì fāng</small> WHERE I LIVE			
复习 <small>fù xī</small>	Review	Talking about the home and where things are	86
1 我的家 <small>wǒ de jiā</small>	1 My house	Describing people's homes	88
2 我的城市 <small>wǒ de chéng shì</small>	2 My town	Talking about where places are	90
3 我住的地方 <small>wǒ zhù de dì fāng</small>	3 My local area	Using adjectives to give opinions	92
4 方位 <small>fāng wèi</small>	4 Where things are	Using 在 and place words to describe locations	94
5 问路 <small>wèn lù</small>	5 Finding the way	Asking for directions	96
6 留学体会 <small>liú xué tǐ huì</small>	6 Exchange visits	Making comparisons	98
口语 <small>kǒu yǔ</small>	Speaking assessment	Preparing for a speaking task (presentation)	100
写作 <small>xiě zuò</small>	Writing assessment	Preparing for an extended writing task to advertise your house and area	102
重要语言点 <small>zhòng yào yǔ yán diǎn</small>	Key language	Key words and phrases in Chapter 5	104
6 度假 <small>dù jià</small> HOLIDAYS			
复习 <small>fù xī</small>	Review	Revising weather and transport	106
1 天气 <small>tiān qì</small>	1 The weather	Talking about the weather	108
2 交通 <small>jiāo tōng</small>	2 Transport	Talking about different means of transport	110
3 度假经历 <small>dù jià jīng lì</small>	3 Holiday experiences	Talking about a past holiday	112
4 假期计划 <small>jià qī jì huà</small>	4 Holiday plans	Talking about the future	114
5 订旅馆 <small>dīng lǚ guǎn</small>	5 Booking a hotel	Asking and answering questions	116
6 旅行安排 <small>lǚ xíng ān pái</small>	6 Making travel arrangements	Talking about sequences of activities	118
听力和阅读 <small>tīng lì hé yuè dú</small>	Exam – Listening and Reading	Preparing for the Listening and Reading exam	120

Appendix 15 Chinese for GCSE (Student Book III)

Dilbahar Tawakkul (2003) Chinese for GCSE Student Book III. Publisher: British Council



4. Translation.

- 1) 星期天我和朋友想去体育馆打乒乓球，体育馆九点才开门，我们的家都离体育馆不远，我们八点半坐公共汽车去。
- 2) 我是学校戏剧队的。我的爸爸妈妈都喜欢看我们戏剧队表演，今天我们在学校表演英国的戏剧，他们都要去看。
- 3) 我的朋友昨天头疼，发烧，所以没有去运动场训练。我跟他一起去医院看病。他今天不发烧了。
- 4) 今天历史博物馆有新的展览，我想去看。博物馆九点才开门，我八点坐公共汽车去。



5. Say something about your plan for this weekend.

Yàoshì tiānqì hǎo / bù hǎo, wǒ jiù
要是天气好 / 不好，我就……

Yàoshì zuòyè duō / bù duō, wǒ jiù
要是作业多 / 不多，我就……

Xīngqīliù yàoshì tiānqì hǎo, wǒ hé péngyou jiù
星期六要是天气好，我和朋友就……

Yàoshì péngyou lái wǒ jiā, wǒmen jiù
要是朋友来我家，我们就……

Yàoshì diànyǐngyuàn yǒu wǒ xǐhuan de diànyǐng, wǒ jiù
要是电影院有我喜欢的电影，我就……



6. Write characters.

活 活 活

烧 烧 烧

操 操 操

戏 戏 戏

才 才 才

队 队 队



Appendix 16 Sample for Kuaile Hanyu Content

Kuaile Hanyu (2003) Published by People's education Press.

Main Editor: Xiaoqi Li

Editor: Xiaoyu Liu, Shuhong Wang, Ya Yi

第五单元 时间和天气

13. 现在几点	/56
14. 我的生日	/60
15. 今天不冷	/64
单元小结	/68



第六单元 工 作

16. 他是医生	69
17. 他在医院工作	73
18. 我想做演员	78
单元小结	83

第七单元 爱 好

19. 你的爱好是什么	84
20. 你会打网球吗	88
21. 我天天看电视	92
单元小结	97



第八单元 交通和旅游

22. 这是火车站	/98
23. 我坐飞机去	/103
24. 汽车站在前边	/108
单元小结	/112
词语表	/113



Appendix 17 Kuaile Hanyu Textbook

Kuaile Hanyu (2003) Published by People's education Press.

Main Editor: Xiaoqi Li

Editor: Xiaoyu Liu, Shuhong Wang, Ya Yi

7 Fill in the blanks with the given characters.

	nǐ 你	hěn 很	hǎo 好
1) Hello!			hǎo! 好!
2) How are you?	nǐ 你		ma? 吗?
3) I'm fine.	wǒ 我		hǎo. 好。

8 Complete the dialogues.

1) Complete the dialogue with pinyin.



2) Complete the dialogue with pinyin.



KUAILE HANYU 3

Appendix 18 Kuaile Hanyu practice

Kuaile Hanyu (2003) Published by People's education Press.

Main Editor: Xiaoqi Li

Editor: Xiaoyu Liu, Shuhong Wang, Ya Yi

4 Write the characters.

笔画数							
6	hǎo	好					
7	nǐ	你					
9	hěn	很					

5 Pair the English words and pinyin with the same color.

<input type="checkbox"/> Hello!	<input type="checkbox"/> Nǐ hǎo ma?
<input type="checkbox"/> How are you?	<input type="checkbox"/> Nǐ hǎo!
<input type="checkbox"/> I'm fine.	<input type="checkbox"/> Wǒ hěn hǎo.

6 Choose the correct Chinese sentences and write their numbers under the English sentences.

Nǐ hǎo.	Nǐ hǎo ma?	Wǒ hěn hǎo.
① 你好。	② 你好吗？	③ 我很好。

I'm fine.	How are you?	Hello!
_____	_____	_____

2
KUAILE HANYU